

A TAXONOMY OF TRANSLATION PROBLEMS IN TRANSLATING FROM ENGLISH TO ARABIC

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DEDICATION

TO MY FAMILY

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Zakia Deeb

Abstract

This thesis investigates translation problems in translating from English to Arabic.

Despite the fact that there are some taxonomies available, none is based on empirical research; moreover, none can be considered comprehensive. The present study provides a ranked taxonomy of problems in translating from English to Arabic that was developed through two empirical studies. The first is a case-study of the researcher translating a published corpus of short translation-class texts. Since the aim of this project is pedagogical, students of translation were the target population of the second multi-subject study. Here, 56 undergraduate and 18 postgraduate students in Arabic → English translation classes at Al-Fateh University and the Academy of Graduate Studies in Libya translated a sub-set of the same texts. By comparing the two groups' performance, the researcher could also find out the effects of translation experience/proficiency on the type and severity of problems.

The taxonomy consists of four levels: supra, main, sub and sub-sub categories. The supra category includes problems of ST Comprehension and TT Production and problems of Transfer Process. The main category includes Micro-Language problems, Macro-Text level problems and Strategies and Techniques problems. The sub-category includes problems of Grammar, Vocabulary, Spelling, Rhetorical and stylistic devices, Cohesion, Register and style, Background Knowledge and Culture. The sub-sub categories include forty seven categories such as problems of Word order, Fixed Expressions, Spelling Slips, Irony, Omission and Additions. A tentative ranking of the difficulty of problems is based on three factors: perceived difficulty, error count and error severity. What distinguishes the taxonomy formulated in the present study from

existing ones is comprehensiveness, e.g. in combining problems of ST comprehension, TT production and problems of transfer process, or in combining problems of the language system and extra-textual problems; and the ranking adds another dimension.

The thesis consists of six chapters: Chapter One outlines the theme of the project and presents the research questions. Chapter Two reviews the relevant literature with an emphasis on translation problems and errors. Chapter Three presents the researcher case-study which sets the ground for the multi-subject main-study in Chapter Four. Chapter Five provides a model of English → Arabic translation problems as exemplified by the taxonomy of translation problems and discusses the ranking system used and its outcome.

Chapter Six, Conclusion, evaluates the outcome of the study, assesses the methodology that has been used to investigate the issues set in the research questions and discusses implications for further research.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

PT	PROFESSIONAL TRANSLATORS
SC	SOURCE CULTURE
SL	SOURCE LANGUAGE
ST	SOURCE TEXT
TC	TARGET CULTURE
TL	TARGET LANGUAGE
TQA	TRANSLATION QUALITY ASSESSMENT
TT	TARGET TEXT

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. This project

As its title implies, this study classifies and investigates translation problems in translating from English into Arabic and finds out which of such problems are the most prominent and difficult to tackle for students. The decision to work on this diverse topic was motivated by the desire to tackle head on the practical problems confronted by students of translation, which are all too often glossed over by writers on translation theory. While the immediate aim of generating a taxonomy of translation problems - as a prime aim of this study - is mainly a pedagogical one, its outcome - as a whole - is hoped to offer a humble contribution to translation studies in general. This study would thus shed some light on the nature of such problem areas translators might encounter and would offer some insights about what might go wrong in dealing with them.

1.2. Background

The whole idea of researching in the area of translation problems started and crystallized during some years of experience in teaching translation to undergraduate students majoring in English at the Faculty of Languages Al Fateh University, Tripoli Libya. One particular observation during the period of teaching translation to undergraduate students that triggered a lot of questioning on my part was that students often seem to have higher expectations of their performance than how they actually perform in practice, namely exams. Similarly, Masoud (1988: 10) emphasizes:

More often than not, new translators dive into translation work thinking that because they speak two languages, they are qualified for the task.

From the researcher's experience as a translation trainer, students and novice translators are, generally, not aware of the requirements of the task of translation they are assigned. More importantly they seem unable to realise many of the problems related to the task in hand. This leads to the gap that exists in translation training programs which is the lack of a detailed classification of problems of translation per se on one hand, and of the translation requirements of particular texts on the other. Moreover, most translation training programs are targeting post-graduate students who are preparing themselves toward this profession as their future career. Even at the level of post-graduate, such programs are not based on an analytic practice. However, we know from experience that in real life the market of translation is packed with translation practitioners who never studied translation as a discipline of its own but merely as a language learning exercise at undergraduate level, i.e. without a coherent approach to translation problems, strategies and solutions with which to tackle them. Graduates from language departments often take translation as their life vocation or happen to find themselves practicing the profession in one way or another. So, this category (language students) at both undergraduate and graduate level should be targeted for more focused translation training before they engage in a practice of which they are unaware and in which they are under-skilled in the case of undergraduates and relying on lots of practice rather than an analytical approach to problems in the case of post-graduates. In order to fill this gap, the intention of this study is to do extensive research involving experimentation in translating different types of texts, and this is the intention of the present study.

1.3. Translation problems

There is hardly a study, either an article or book on translation that does not mention the word “problem” at least several times. Yet translation problems have not been exhaustively investigated. While studying these translation problems would eventually benefit trainees, trainers should be enlightened about what is a problem in the first place because:

Trainers must be able to point out specific problems rather than relying on vague impressions, and they must be able to back up their decisions with more than just instinct or gut feeling, (Bowker 2000: 186).

Moreover, identifying problems is a first step towards positive evaluation and analysis of successful solutions. Though some apply to most or even all language pairs, some can be very specific and even unique to that pair. So, what is a translation problem? As translation problems are the core of investigation in this study, a full section is allocated to discuss this concept in Chapter Two (Literature review). For now, a simple definition could be that a translation problem is whatever presents obstacles in transferring the content of one piece of language into another whether the latter be an element (word), string of elements (clause), a phrase, a grammatical pattern or even a whole text. Of course, the degree of obstacle varies in intensity, leading one to the assumption that translation problems fall under different ranks in terms of challenge.

In defining a translation problem we need a distinction between, on the one hand, a problem as a source of puzzlement to the translator, i.e. a process difficulty and, on the other, a defect in performance, i.e. a product “error”. Such a distinction is crucial in the present study.

Employers and translation agencies often cite “poor mother tongue/TL” as the main difficulty faced by novice translators just out of university, implying that poor translation tends to be inaccurate and stylistically awkward. This leads to the fact that standards of translation should be promoted to high criteria, and in this TL standards are crucial here. The broad aim of this study, however, is double: by investigating translation problems in translating from English into Arabic, it aims at catering for both the ST and the TT. Commitment towards the ST in translation is an ethic professional translators should have towards the SL and the author, catering for the TT too is an obligation towards the TL and the translation user or client in order to give a linguistically and stylistically better product.

1.4. Why research in translation problems?

While the purpose of this study is unreservedly academic, the need to accelerate investigation in translation research in general is becoming a must, as translating from other languages in the modern era, with information flooding from every corner in the globe, is increasingly in demand.

Because translation studies as an autonomous discipline has only evolved during the last decades (Doorslaer, 1995: 245), scientific research in the area is only very recent phenomenon, as stressed by Gile (1994: 39). The call for research in translation is overwhelming as “a whole range of issues seemed to be waiting for examination, and inquiry is overdue”, Simon (1996: 1). Calls for conducting systematic comparative studies of translated and original texts (Broeck 1986: 36), and those for research focusing more upon what Krings (1986: 263) has termed “the acquisition of translation competence”, still have not been heeded.

In translating between English and Arabic, for example, there is a shortage of research in translation problems that may be encountered by Arabic-speaking translators of English, (see for example Khalil, 1993: 169-179 and Khafaji, 1996). Furthermore, most of the available studies deal with translation problems from a contrastive linguistics perspective in isolation from other problems. Those which deal with various problems at once, (Gazala 1995/2000), do not extend beyond the basic problems that only beginners sometimes, and not always, encounter. Moreover, most examples Gazala used for illustration are fabricated, isolated and out of context.

1.5. Aims and research questions

The broad aim of this project therefore, is to carry out an empirical study of problematic areas in written translation for language students and novice translators; empirical in the sense of adopting a practical approach to investigating real texts and pointing at specific problematic instances found in errors committed by trainee students particularly at undergraduate level. By analyzing students' errors, this study hopes to categorize and to reach conclusions on the patterns of errors in students' translations when translating from English into Arabic. The outcome of this study should alert those responsible in the field of translation training to translation problems that students frequently encounter, which of these problems are easily handled, which are more difficult and whether any of them are particularly intractable. In practical terms, this study intends to provide translation course designers, schools of translation and freelance training programmers as well as syllabus designers at both undergraduate and postgraduate level with a graded checklist of problems encountered by Arab students translating from English into Arabic.

The broad research questions of this PhD project as a whole are as follows:

1. What are the main problems faced by learners or novice translators in translating from English into Arabic as reflected in common errors?
2. What is the nature of such errors? How can they be classified?
3. What role does process difficulty play in classifying problems, i.e. on a scale of difficulty, which of these problems can be ranked as *very difficult* (difficult to get a satisfactory solution/ untranslatable), and which are merely *difficult* (problematic but eventually manageable) and how can errors be ranked in terms of commonness of occurrence (“frequency”) and severity?
4. What difference does degree of translating experience make in terms of a problem ranking?

1.6. Methods

This project consists of two studies: The researcher case-study as a pre-study (Chapter Three) and the multi-subject main-study (Chapter Four). Methodology used to elicit data and procedures to analyze and evaluate subjects’ products are discussed in detail in their respective sections to follow (Chapter Four). Here, however, a brief account of the general methods used in both studies is given.

The present study, therefore, uses a multi-method approach for the collection and triangulation of data. This approach aims at narrowing down the possibility of invalidity due to reliance on one single method (Creswell 2003).

Preliminary answers to questions 1, 2 and 3 are obtained by generating translation problems through carrying out the task of translation myself on as many varied texts as possible (Chapter Three: Researcher Case -Study). As a translation teacher with

some professional translating experience, I played the role of the translator who, when translating a collection of texts in common use in English/Arabic translation is confronted with translation problems that are diverse in nature and have to be solved. The source material used in the case-study – and also in the multi-subject study - was the collection of pedagogic translation texts in Duff (1989), see 3.1.4. Using the available resources such as bilingual and monolingual dictionaries and resorting to different strategies, the problems were identified and classified. The aim of this case-study was to generate a list of translation problems that can be used as a hypothetical model to be tested in the second multi-subject study.

To avoid basing conclusions on personal intuition alone, the hypotheses related to the translation problems generated in the researcher case-study were tested against students and novice translators in the main multi-subject study (Chapter Four: Main Study). In the main study, using only a representative sample of texts from the collection, the provisional checklist generated in the case-study is then tested against the translation performance of 74 subjects who are students of English and translation at Al Fateh University and the Academy of Graduate Studies in Libya.

Question 4 is answered by the use of various types of informants: in the case-study the researcher (a translation teacher) and professional translators are consulted for feedback; and in the main study, students including post-graduates vs. undergraduates and novice translators. Although it is minor compared to the first three questions, this question addresses the relationship between the researcher's insights and those of students. Thus the main purpose of the researcher case-study (pre-study phase 1) is to generate a provisional taxonomy of problems for inexperienced translators but particularly translation students, subsequently some particular problems encountered

by students translators are highlighted by comparing their performance with that of the trainer and feedback/performance from the professionals respectively.

The list of problems generated in the researcher-case-study plus other problems that emerged in the multi-subject study, combined to form the tentative classification model of translation problems presented in Chapter Five. This model is intended to fill the gap that initially triggered this study.

This study does consider itself as more comprehensive than others in translating between Arabic and English in that it deals with a wide range of translation problems at once, whereas other studies usually focus on certain translation problems for investigation and omit others. Nevertheless, I can by no means claim to put forward an exhaustive checklist. Translation problems investigated in this study, though numerous, are only those thrown up by the texts in question (short texts, extracts). These do represent the range of genres typically encountered by students of the texts – especially language students.

1.7. The thesis: overview

This study is also inevitably limited in scope. While it commits itself to identify translation problems and investigate their difficulties, it does not attempt to fully prescribe solutions. When analyzing subjects' translations, suggestions will occasionally be offered to mend defects, but I will not attempt to provide remedies for every single problem. Nevertheless, while this study acknowledges that presenting translation problems and displaying them in their context of occurrence cannot be an ultimate aim in itself (see Wilss 1995: 857 - 858), the cornerstone for finding a system to tackle such problems is, undoubtedly to first establish what these problems are.

Moreover, although this study recognizes that both product and process studies have a role to play in describing the work of the trainee translator, and assigns measures for process difficulty, its focus remains on investigating product rather than process.

One reason why the focus of the present study is in one direction (translating from English into Arabic) is that the problems of translation discussed are those encountered by Arabic native users who usually translate to Arabic and is mainly for the sake of conciseness. Yet a lot of what can be said about translating from English into Arabic, theoretically and practically, can indeed be applicable to the reverse direction, i.e. Arabic into English translation.

It is also important to draw attention to the fact that the principal concern here is to translate into modern standard Arabic, the language of public literature, i.e. any printed document (business letter, newspaper, books etc.) rather than the spoken regional varieties. Since this study aims to address issues that concern all Arab trainee translators and not only a particular speech community, the common shared language that serves this purpose is standard Arabic.

Besides the present chapter, the thesis consists of six chapters:

Chapter Two is a literature review consisting of two sections. Section One, Translation Concepts and Translation Teaching, surveys theoretical aspects and issues of translation in terms of different views and trends that are relevant to the present study. Section Two, Translation: Competence, Performance, Assessment and Problems, discusses in some detail the issue of translation assessment on the bases of students' performance and translation problems in relation to errors in translation.

Chapter Three presents the researcher case-study, whose aim is to generate a list of translation problems that can work as hypotheses for the multi-subject main study and enable an evaluation of the suitability of the textual material selected.

In Chapter Four the hypotheses of translation problems derived from the pre-study are tested in a multi-subject study. In Section One, Experiment Design and Data Collection and Data Analysis, the process of sampling of population and criteria for material selection are discussed and procedures for the actual collection and analysis of data are described. Section Two, Findings and Results, is a presentation of the results of the quantitative and qualitative data assessment.

Chapter Five, Discussion, analyses the results and discusses the findings of the multi-subject study while incorporating findings from the researcher-case study and reference to the literature, and presents a model for the classification of translation problems. The final taxonomy of translation problems presented in Chapter Five evolved over time based on the two taxonomies previously derived in Chapter Three and Chapter Four. The three taxonomies reflect three phases of increasingly sophisticated analysis.

Chapter Six, Conclusion, gives a summary of the outcome of the study as a whole, an assessment of what it has achieved and a review of the key methodology issues that have been used to investigate the issues raised in the research questions. The conclusion chapter ends with an outline of implications for further research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Section One:

Translation Concepts and Translation Teaching

2.1.0. Introduction

This literature review chapter consists of two sections. The introductory section is a review of background concepts relevant to this study, namely translation theories, methods, approaches, translation strategies and problem solving as well as current views of teaching translation. Section Two discusses in some detail the central issues of this study, these being the concepts of translation competence, translation performance and translation assessment and the core topic of this study: translation problems and errors in students' translation performance.

In the present section, we start by introducing the key notion of translation equivalence and definitions of translation.

2.1.1. Translation and equivalence

To translate is defined in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary as "to change sth. spoken or esp. written into another language". This definition, although accurate, does not tell us much about the process of change from one language into another or about the conditions which govern such a change. Similarly, the definition of the task of the translator as being "to replace the language of the other by a native language" (Brisset 2000: 346), although true, lacks precision: what about mismatches between languages for example?

The implicit focus in all translation definitions is upon the concept of equivalence. For example:

Translation may be defined as follows: the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL), (Catford 1965: 20).

Nida (1969: 12) defines translation as:

Reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and, secondly in terms of style.

House (1982: 29-30) introduces a definition that adds a pragmatic aspect to translating when looking at textual equivalence:

Translation is the replacement of a text in the source language by a semantically and pragmatically equivalent text in the target language.

The key aspect in the above definitions is the concept of equivalence between a unit of text in one language, and a unit of text in another. The problem is; however, that while all agree that the word equivalence designates some sort of correspondence, it is recognized that correspondence is a relative concept when it comes to translation. In solving a translation problem, Newmark (1993: 2) says:

Even after arriving at a preferred solution, however, there may well be approximately synonymous solutions of equal merit. ... For this reason alone, the concept of translation equivalence, while it is useful operationally, cannot be defined without a series of provisos and qualifications.

Many theorists and practitioners focus on a specific aspect of equivalence as a central aspect in their concept of translation, e.g. cultural equivalence (Casagrande, 1954), situational equivalence (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958), formal equivalence i.e.

correspondence between linguistic form (Catford, 1965), textual equivalence, i.e. correspondence of message (van Dijk, 1972) functional equivalence i.e. correspondence between communicative actions (Kachru, 1982; De Waard and Nida, 1986), and so on. Moreover, Nida's (1964) concept of 'dynamic equivalence' as opposed to 'formal equivalence' has gained such popularity that it has been adopted by others, though in such subtly different forms as from an 'equivalent effect' (Koller, 1972)¹, 'communicative translation' (Newmark, 1981) and 'cultural translation' (Catford, 1965). For De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 216), the equivalence of a translation with its original can only be equivalence in the experience of the participants, a view very close to that of Nida.

Among all the above types, formal equivalence stands out against all the rest, which are essentially functional. This leads to the two concepts of literal translation² (word for word) versus free translation³ (sense for sense translation) and their theme of looking at equivalence. These two types of translation are well rooted in history. In describing literal translation and free translation, De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 216) say,

The "literal" translator decomposes the text into single elements (or small groups of elements) and replaces each with a corresponding element (or group) in the goal language. The "free" translator judges the function of the whole text in discourse and searches for elements that could fulfill that function in a goal-language situation.

¹ More recently, Koller (1997) adopts a denotative, connotative, pragmatic, textual and formal-aesthetic equivalence.

² "A translation made on a level lower than is sufficient to convey the content unchanged while observing TL norms", Barkhudarov (1969: 10) in Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997: 95).

³ Instead of the traditional labels of "literal" and "free", Vinay and Darbelnet (2000: 84-93) use two different labels "direct" and "oblique" respectively.

In practical terms, the above dichotomy applies to the two alternative approaches, namely, ST/TT oriented translation or author/reader oriented translation. The following quotation from Friedrich Schliermacher (1813)⁴ tells us about the orientation of each approach:

There are only two methods of translation. Either the translator leaves the author in peace as much as possible, and moves the reader towards him; or he leaves the reader in peace, as much as possible, and moves the author towards him.

The two contemporary terms foreignization and domestication (Venuti 1995:17) are rooted in the distinction mentioned in the above quotation. “Foreignization” means “retaining something of the foreignness of the original” (Shuttleworth and M. Cowie, 1997: 59), domestication, on the other hand, is ‘a term used by Venuti (1995) to describe the translation strategy in which transparent, fluent style is adopted in order to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text for TL readers’ (Shuttleworth and Cowie, 1997: 43-44).

“Domestication” is similar to what some, e.g. Klyukanov (1995), call ‘pragmatic adaptation’, or PA for short. In Klyukanov’s words PA bridges the gap between two cultures or messages, inserting a filter in order to balance their pragmatic differences and ensure the ‘successful’ interpretation of the text by interpreters of the target culture within their familiar frame of reference. ‘Basically’, she says,

PA consists in sacrificing semantic meanings in favor of pragmatic through a process that adds, deletes, or uses different semantic information. Semantic changes in translation can involve any level, from word to narrative structures, (Klyukanov 1995: 23).

⁴ Quoted in Venuti (1995:19) after Lefevere (1977: 74).

Klyukanov restricts PA to certain text types (i.e. texts where intercultural communication is a key aspect).

The phenomenon of PA has been given some attention in the theory of translation (Engelbert, 1990; Reiss, 1987; Weizman and Blum-Kulka, 1987), see also Bassnett-McGuire (1980)⁵. PA is a target-centred pattern of information processing, as opposed to the foreignizing or ‘resistive translation’ (RT) proposed by Venuti (1986) which resists dominant target cultural meanings and highlights the ‘foreignness’ of the source text (Klyukanov, 1995: 24). However, Cohen (1962: 35)⁶ noted that domestication involves:

The risk of reducing individual authors’ styles and national tricks of speech to a plain prose uniformity.

One form of domestication is discussed in the skopos theory formulated by Vermeer (1978), and presented as ‘the Foundation of a General Theory of Translation’ in Reiss and Vermeer (1984)⁷. Skopos is the “purpose” of the translated text, which is seen as determining the translation process. In this model, the recipient for whom the target text (TT) is intended is the crucial factor in any translation process (Nord 1991: 93).

Nord introduces the principle of ‘loyalty’ into the framework of the skopos model. By ‘loyalty’, she means that the translator is committed bilaterally to the source text and the target situations and responsible to both the ST sender and the TT recipient.

⁵ Quoted in Klyukanov (1995).

⁶ Quoted in Venuti (1995: 6)

⁷ Quoted in Munday (2001)

As a mediation between the two dichotomies of formal versus functional equivalence, Farghal (1994) suggests the notion of ideational equivalence (correspondence between ideas).

2.1.2. Translation models

Two translation models or approaches will be discussed below as being particularly relevant to this study, namely the ‘text linguistics model’ and the ‘text-type model’. Most relevant to this study are the notions of communicative translation, efficiency, effectiveness and appropriateness referred to by the text linguistics model. However, although, text-type oriented translation was not adopted as a model of investigation here, nevertheless it might, ostensibly, seem a useful concept in an error investigation study.

2.1.2.1. Text linguistics model

De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 14-29) refer to ‘text linguistics’ as a science of texts that describes or explains both the shared features and the distinctions between texts or text types. They define text as essentially ‘communicative occurrence’, that carries a message venturing beyond the domain of ‘linguistics proper’ (Leinonen-Davies 1988: 55). In order for a text to be communicative, De Beaugrande and Dressler outline seven standards of textuality: cohesion (relations of meaning within the text), coherence (agreement of a text with its situation), informativity (conveying message), intentionality (purpose), acceptability (observing norms), situationality (conformity with situation), and intertextuality (relations between text components). They also recommend after Searle (1969) three principles for a text: efficiency (the running of operations with a light load on resources of attention and access), effectiveness (intense use of resources of attention and access on materials removed

from the explicit surface presentation) and appropriateness (correlation between the current occasion and the standards of textuality), (ibid. 34).

Text linguistics theory looks at the text in terms of more than merely linguistic elements such as vocabulary and grammar. The psychological background and the social context of the message are also crucial to understanding of language structure. Also, with the emergence of text linguistics theory in the seventies, the idea of the 'unit of translation' emerged with the text as the highest-level unit instead of merely the word and sentence, the norm previously.

One area of text linguistics which has flourished rapidly in the last two or three decades, is discourse analysis (the study of the functions of linguistic categories in making texture). Hatim (1987) used a text linguistics model for the analysis of discourse errors and (1988) he used a text linguistics approach to investigate discourse awareness in decision-making within the translation process (cf. Chapter Three, Section Two: text level features). Also, Rosenhouse (1989) used a text linguistics approach (a discourse analysis model) to analyze 'micro-level' and 'macro-level' mistranslations in students' errors at small units within the text and errors at the level of the text as a whole respectively. In short, text linguistics' contribution to translation studies in recent years has been overwhelming.

2.1.2.2. Text-type oriented translation

In this approach texts are classified according to typology, where each text-type is assumed to have its different methods of translating. Werlich (1975: 71) lists five text types: descriptive, narrative, expository, argumentational and instructive (cf. 2.2.3.2.1). Text-type analysts look for typical features such as lexical signals and structural formations that can identify a text as belonging to a certain text type (John

1988). Discussing text-type oriented translation, Nord (1991) refers to the distinction which German linguists and translation scholars (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984, for example) make between 'text type' and 'text class'. According to this distinction, 'text type', as she says, is a functional classification (e.g. informative vs. expressive vs. persuasive texts, or descriptive vs. narrative vs. argumentative text); alternatively, 'text class' is a category that refers to the occurrence of texts in standard situations (e.g. weather report, prayer, recipe, folk-ballad, operating instructions). British authors, she points out, normally seem to use the term "text type" for both classifications (cf. De Beaugrande 1980: 197; De Beaugrande & Dressler 1981: 183ff.; or House 1981a: 35 and Nord 1991: 18). Similarly, Mason (1982: 23) uses the 'domain' of the text and Crystal and Davy (1969) use the term 'province' to classify the text as scientific, administrative, political, religious, literary, journalistic, legal, etc

The fact that text typology, though based on features such as topic, intention, mode of expression and situational factors - mainly concerned with the social and knowledge relationships between writer and intended reader - is of little use for translation, is also emphasized by Sager (1993: 84):

These general categories are pre-scientific, and there is no single generally agreed and established classification of text types that is usable in discussions of translation.

As used by Mason, these domains only give the vaguest clue as to the kind of language used. The fact that classifying texts in translation according to text type tends only to be used to show the general emphasis or "thrust" of a text is also emphasized by Lie (1995) due to the fact that only a few texts are purely 'expressive', 'informative', 'vocative' or others. Indeed, a crucial problem with applying the text

typology approach to translation is the hybrid nature of texts, as texts tend to manifest different features that are difficult to attribute to a certain text type (see Hatim 1997: 41) and Danielson (1988: 4), (see Chapter Three: Researcher Case-Study).

However, Shaheen (1997: 9) holds a different view, stressing the superiority of a text typological model of translating, owing to its ability to provide objective and systematic translation techniques required in effective TT.⁸ Furthermore, Shaheen points out that the text-typology approach necessitates text analysis as a preliminary step to translating. As far as this study is concerned however, the text-type approach to translation ultimately proved impractical (see Chapter Three, Section One “researcher case-study”).

2.1.3. Translation strategies and problem solving

As far as the present study is concerned, the importance of translation process views of strategies to solve translation problems lies in their relevance to the notion of process difficulty addressed in this study. With regard to product-based views of techniques in taking actions with the task in hand it lies in committing errors in the translation product.

I following Faerch and Kasper’s (1983a: 36) definition of communication strategies as potential conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal. When analyzing data to investigate translation processes, (Klings 1986: 268), found, the absence of a translation problem coincides with the absence of translational strategies, i.e. a source-language text item is directly transformed into a target language text item. In

⁸ See Shaheen (1997: 50-60) for details for the text typological model.

this case, he says, the translation process is highly automatized. In his investigation of data collected by means of the think aloud technique⁹ to investigate translation processes in students' performance, Krings found that there are five main sets of strategies involved in the handling of translation problems:

- Strategies of comprehension.
- Strategies of equivalent retrieval.
- Strategies of equivalent monitoring.
- Strategies of decision-making.
- Strategies of reduction.

An encounter of a comprehension problem leads to the emergence of the comprehension strategy, which is manifested in inferring meaning and use of reference books (e.g. dictionaries). Retrieval strategies refer to the recall of a known lexical item. Monitoring strategies are employed to check items for correctness or appropriateness. Decision-making happens subsequent to both processes and is particularly concerned with choosing between alternatives. The strategy of reduction is a specific one that refers to those cases where the translation problem can be solved only by means of formal or functional reduction (e.g. giving up the markedness or metaphorical character of a source-language text item and replacing it by a non-marked or non-metaphorical equivalent).

Lörscher (1986: 282) classifies strategies for problem solving in the process of oral translation of written texts as follows:

⁹ Think aloud technique involves verbalizing what goes in the mind of the subject to report orally to the researcher about the process s/he is engaged while performing a cognitive or linguistic task (Cohen, 1996; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

- Monitoring of SL text segments.
- Rephrasing of SL text segments.
- Monitoring of TL text segments.
- Rephrasing of TL text segments.
- Leaving a problem aside.
- Setting up and testing of hypotheses.
- Verbalizing of a problem to focus on problem solving strategies.

By comparing activities performed in the translation processes in human translation and those involved in machine translation, Sager (1993, 246-247) provides a model of problem solving in human translation. His model assumes that the process from identifying a problem to reaching a solution takes these stages:

- SL linguistic decomposition;
- problem identification at the SL linguistic and cognitive level;
- problem solution at the cognitive and TL linguistic level with reference to a knowledge base;
- TL linguistic re-composition.

Toury (1986: 67) focuses on the difference between strategies used by the novice translator or, as he calls him, the infant translator, and those used by the experienced translator. He distinguishes between two types: to execute the plan by means of which his communicative intention will (hopefully) be realised or to overcome problems that he may encounter during the execution of his plan.

What are relevant to this study are the process strategies of monitoring (revision) and self-correction. Hence subjects judge the quality of their work and identify their errors. If they are able to identify and specify the nature of their errors, they will presumably be more able to correct them and provide a more satisfactory translation. Hieke (1980) found from his experimentation on German students translating into English that students were able to identify 18% of their errors. Such a percentage he considers significant remembering that the students' judgements were made immediately after completing the translation task.

The above were strategies in terms of the translator's own psychological/physical process (deliberate problem-solving activities while translating, Lörscher 1995), however strategies also differ according to the nature of the translation problem, i.e. in terms of what happens to the text (textual solutions to the problem chosen during strategies, Fawcett 1997). These latter procedures are usually called techniques, and refer to decisions taken about the action that would be taken for the translation of a particular translation problem. They include:

- Equation (literal translation/transference): a literal equivalent is chosen.
- Selection: one of several possible TL equivalents is chosen.
- Concretization (differentiation): a general/class term is translated by a more specific item.
- Antonymic translation: a negative expression is translated by a positive one, or vice versa.
- Borrowing (transference): the ST expression is used untranslated in the TT
- Calque (loan translation): an expression is translated by literally translating its individual parts.

- Transposition: the grammar class changes.
- Reordering: the order of elements changes.
- Logical modulation: one aspect of a process/situation is replaced by another aspect.
- Compensation (improvisation): a similar effect is either given elsewhere (e.g. a pun) or by using a different means.
- Equivalence (dynamic equivalence): a ST idiom, etc. is replaced by a TL idiom with different propositional content (literal meaning) but similar illocutionary force (interpersonal meaning).
- Adaptation: a source-culture item is replaced by a target-culture equivalent
 - Amplification (explicitation): information is added.
 - Reduction: information is omitted.
 - Diffusion: the same information is given, but TT is longer than the ST.
 - Concentration (condensation): give the same information, but TT is shorter than the ST.
 - Abandonment: to decide to drop some of the ST items or features (e.g. miss out an expression, or translate the sense but not the rhyme of a poem).

However, some do not differentiate between strategies and techniques as indeed the terms of categories above vary, see for example, Jones (1989a), Fawcett (1997) and Munday (2001).

To take an example, in the case of unmatched elements of culture, Ivir (1987: 35) emphasizes that the translator's strategy in choosing a particular procedure or a

combination of procedures such as borrowing, definition, literal translation, substitution, lexical creation, omission, or deletion is:

governed by the nature of the cultural term to be translated (its semantic content and linguistic expression in the source language and its contrastive relationship to the possible correspondents in the target language) and the nature of the communicative process in which it appears (the function of that term in the particular act of communication).

Accordingly, successful strategies (process decisions) can be a result of more than one of the above mentioned factors and the selection of a particular technique (text alterations) depends on the translator's assessment of the requirement of the text in hand.

2.1.4. Teaching translation

As the ultimate aim of this study is pedagogical, it is hoped the findings will address crucial aspects of teaching translation such as those discussed below.

Although some early voices expressed skepticism about the usefulness of training programs (e.g. Pilley, 1962) and those who are in favour of self-taught translators (e.g. Schmitt, 1966), recently most consider formal training indispensable as translation gradually becomes a discipline in its own right. This study tends to echo the latter point of view. In terms of what to include in the course and what to exclude, teaching translation has always been surrounded by debate though there seem to be an agreement about including a representative cross-section of subject areas and text types (Fraser 1996: 246; Snell-Hornby 1992:17). Chau (1989: 29) summarizes controversies surrounding teaching translation as follows:

- the justification of the training of translators in an institutional context,
- the level at which teaching translation should take place,
- the objectives of such training,
- the language competence of candidates,
- translation to the native language or into the foreign language,
- the qualifications needed for translators and interpreters.

However, teaching translation established most of its main principles in the seventies as the whole notion of applied linguistics was transformed. For example, Wilss's (1969) five-step operation approach (source text analysis, evaluation of translation difficulties, elimination of difficulties, assessment of equivalence, and back-translation) for teaching translation is considered insightful for what it offers. One of the principles of teaching translation courses is that content should progress from the general to the particular, and from easy to difficult (Rieser 1978)¹⁰. Another tenet which seems to be shared by many, is that teaching translation courses should include portions of language teaching particularly in the foreign language; thus Nida (1979: 213) proposes the inclusion of L1 training too. Conversely, some (e.g. Keiser, 1969: 3) believe that teaching translation programs should not be crammed by language components which lead to translation classes becoming a mere exercise in language, not translating. While the place of linguistics studies in teaching translation is facing even more objections (Hendricks 1975: 102), some still believe that translating can gain insights from linguistics, see for example Coveney (1982: 4) and Naphtine (1983: 22-23). The issue of whether or not to introduce translation theory has also

¹⁰ In Dressler ed, (1978).

encouraged some debate; with Keiser (1969: 5) proposing theory as an important element in the syllabus; an opinion echoed in more recent studies (Chau, 1984b; Naphine, 1983; Wills, 1982). What is problematic, however, is the balance between theory and practice; Frerk (1963: 365-66) suggests a separation between the two - theory at school and practice afterwards.

Another area of concern in designing syllabuses for teaching translation is the teaching of specialized language, i.e. subject matter language (technical, scientific, medical...etc). Among those in favour of this trend are Naphine (1983) and Reiss (1976). Citroen (1966a: 141-142) even draws attention to the fact of the shift from the linguistic competence of the translator to the knowledge of subject matter. Yet it is still debatable how much knowledge of various fields should be included in a teaching translation course and how much left to on-the-job training. This study hopes to reach conclusions that provide an answer to this issue (cf. Chapter Six: Conclusion).

In the nineties, there is a quite large body of writing on teaching translation (e.g. Critchley et al, 1996; Pym, 1993 and Kiraly, 1995), though Campbell (1998: 9) argues that among the hallmarks of many of these writings is that the advice offered is not arrived at through strictly empirical procedures.

For teaching translation in the Arab world, Shaheen's (1997: 7) complaint is that many translation syllabuses at the undergraduate level are characterized as being subjective, while at postgraduate level, the few courses available are of the 'do-it-yourself type'. By subjective, Shaheen probably means teacher-based teaching material, i.e. material based on the trainer's subjective whims or intuitions not on any objective analysis of learner needs. Surveying translation problems in the way conducted in this study is hoped to fill this gap in the existing translation teaching

courses. By do-it-yourself type, he probably means they do not allow much opportunity to students for feedback. Moreover, in his view teachers' preoccupations with sentence-based approaches is the cause of what he considers the deplorable state of teaching translation at Arab universities (ibid. 9-10). What is lacking - as Shaheen points out - is a translation course with a clear linguistic approach that combines translation theory and practice (ibid.). Sa'adeddin (1987: 138-155) sums up what should be tackled in teaching translation to Arab literates in three points:

- The translation-teaching situation. In this context, he emphasizes that “students are inadvertently made to believe that translating is no more than stringing together what is envisaged and has been translated as words and sentences, and that translated sentences are simply joined together by means of formal ties which take the text-receiver from one chunk to another”.
- The linkage systems. Here he particularly focuses on the difference in preference for morphology and punctuation between Arabic and Western languages.
- Text strategies in translation. Here, he focuses on culture and norm of writing in both of the languages concerned: the source language and the target language.

While Sa'adeddin's model is praised by Campbell (1998: 10) as one of only a few recent works that explicitly discusses interference, most studies that survey the state of teaching translation in the Arab world seem to criticize the present situation. However, teaching translation in the Arab world has benefited hugely from internationally recognized Arab and Arabist figures whose works in translation and in

teaching translation, comprising impressive arrays of examples from Arabic and practical exercises, became well established. These luminaries include Hatim and Mason (1990), Aziz (1993), Baker (1998) and Dickins et al (2002) in translating from Arabic to English.

2.1.5. Summary

To sum up, this section of the literature review addressed issues in translation theory, outlining the methods and aims of this study and giving a background base. Chief among them are the notion of translation equivalence, types of translation, models of translation (such as ST/TT oriented translation), the text linguistics model, the text type oriented translation, translation strategies and teaching translation. The next section will deal with more specific issues that touch directly upon the questions raised in this study, the more important being translation problems and errors in translation which will be allocated an ample space for discussion. Other issues of a comparable impact that will be discussed in Section Two are translation competence, translation performance and translation assessment.

2.2. TRANSLATION: PERFORMANCE, COMPETENCE, ASSESSMENT AND PROBLEMS

2.2.0. Introduction

The focus in this section of the literature review chapter is upon two issues of direct relevance not only to this study, but to translation in general and teaching translation in particular: translation assessment and translation problems and errors. However, as a start, I present the two notions of translation performance and translation competence as a background to what will follow.

2.2.1. Translator competence and translation performance

Van Den Broeck (1980: 86) describes what he calls a ‘basic’ translator competence as the ability to deal with texts as a translator, that is to transfer the texts in the most appropriate way from one language to another, from one culture to another and from one system of textual conventions to another. Alternatively, Pym (1992: 281) defines translation competence as the union of three skills:

The ability to generate a target text series of more than one viable term and the ability to select only one target text from this series, quickly and with justified confidence, and to propose this target text as a replacement of source text for a specified purpose and reader.

Both definitions refer to the competence of the translator as an ‘ability’ which demands skill. Hatim and Mason (1997: 205) provide what they call a taxonomy of translator abilities consisting of a set of ST and TT processing skills and transferring skills. Their analysis is comparable to Bachman’s et al (1990) analysis of communicative language ability based on three broad categories of knowledge and

skills: organizational competence (including grammatical competence and textual competence); pragmatic competence (including illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence); strategic competence (including relevance, effectiveness and efficiency; forming plans for the achievement of communicative goals).

Here we need to differentiate between ‘bilingual’ competence which develops at the same rate as, and parallel to, their competence in the two languages involved, and the translation competence per se which builds up through training in which students are exposed to material particularly selected to serve this purpose (cf. Harris 1977; Lörscher 1990; Jones 1995).

Both competences can manifest themselves in ST Comprehension and TT Production. The hypothesis set by this study is that while failure to comprehend the ST (incompetence in the SL) inevitably leads to incorrect translation, the opposite is not necessarily always true: comprehension of the ST does not necessarily lead to correct translation. Many scholars in translation studies devoted in depth analyses to comprehension and its intra - and extra textual factors (e.g. Nord 1991), but what Dancette (1995) in Bastin (2000: 232) calls the re-expression phase process has been under-examined. As for the TL and its linguistic system, command and knowledge of its cultural aspects, textual production skills in the TL, as well as awareness and skill of how to manipulate the language idiomatically, are prime factors leading to high quality translation. However, the validity of the assumption that “what is well conceived can be clearly expressed, and the necessary words come easily”, (Boileau 1952 in Bastin 2000: 232) is questionable. This last point is related to the third key

skill which is translation per se or the ability to render the ST into good¹¹ but maximally faithful TL style and content.

What reflects the level of translation competence is translation performance. Performance in translation is a term often used, though rarely defined. According to Shuttleworth and Cowie (1999: 124):

Following Chomsky's dichotomy, Toury (1980) uses the term performance to describe instances of actual translation (i.e. existing TTs) as opposed to the system of translational possibilities which exist between any potential SL and TL (known as translation competence).

Performance in translation tasks results in a translation product that can be judged as either acceptable or unacceptable; hence performance can be used to assess translation quality which in turn is assumed to reflect competence, as will be explained below.

2.2.2. Translation quality assessment

The quality of a translated text as realised in performance is a reflection of the translator's competence (Campbell 1998: 8). While translation competence is measured through performance, translation performance is judged through criteria of assessment. Lauscher (2000:162) describes translation assessment as:

¹¹ What counts as "good" translation will be tackled in the next section (2.2.2. Translation Quality assessment).

A procedure in which an evaluating person compares an actual target text to a more or less explicit, 'ideal' version of the target text in terms of which the actual target text is rated and judged. The evaluation procedure consists of three elements which influence judgement: the evaluating subject, the object and the model target text.

Campbell (1998: 140) emphasizes that although there does not seem to be an agreed definition of quality and assessment in translation, earlier definitions of quality are criticized for being general and source bound. Accordingly, definitions that focus on the correspondence of the TT to the ST while the TT represents the same value as the ST, such as those proposed by Reiss (1971: 2000) and Nord (1996) replaced earlier definitions.

However, debate around translation quality assessment centres on four main areas: the notion of acceptability; criteria for translation quality assessment; models of translation quality assessment and criticism of the existing models of translation quality assessment.

2.2.2.1. The notion of acceptability

Because of the nature of translation as a discipline where 'correct' or 'incorrect' is often not absolute, and because translation assessment often deals with middle grounds, acceptable and unacceptable are often used instead of correct and incorrect in assessing translation. This clinal nature of acceptability is what presents challenges and makes translation assessment hard to conduct. Newmark (1991) points out:

A good translation is easy to identify but equally problematic to define.

House's definition of "good" translation is "one that does not read like one", (1997: 1-2). To Lauscher (2000: 151), a translation is "deemed good if it achieves optimum equivalence".¹² However, Maier (2000: 139) argues that a definition of what constitutes "good" translation, whether as admirable as House's model or not, is perhaps a more abiding concern when approaching literary, rather than non-literary translations.

"Good" translation entails high quality translation, which is a concept nearer to what Rose (1987) calls 'translation excellence'. According to Rose, 'excellence' - in an ideal world at least - would aim at optimum translation, which in reality can hardly be attainable if it exists at all. 'Translation excellence', she explains, entails appropriate or adequate rendering of a source language text for a target language audience, where appropriate or adequate, she adds, means suitable, both for the text in question and for the audience. To Nida and Taber (1969: 1), the question is this a correct translation? 'must be answered in terms of another question: for whom?' Correctness must be determined by the extent to which the average reader for which a translation is intended will be likely to understand it correctly.

In Lilova's (1987) terms, "Good translation" could also be 'perfect translation', a concept which, as she says, has varied in many aspects from one period of history to another. When the prevailing ideal of translation differs so do the criteria of its evaluation. The fact that quite often in translation choices are made between less-than-perfect possibilities leads to the conclusion that there will always be a degree of imperfection in a translation.

¹² By "optimum equivalence" Lauscher (2000: 151) refers to all Reiss's (1971: 11) levels of equivalence: linguistic and situational context, the linguistic and stylistic level and the intention of the author, target text and target text units having the same the same 'value' as the text and the text unit in the source language.

2.2.2.2. Criteria for translation quality assessment

Translation quality assessment models differ in their details but generally agree about two broad criteria: ‘grammatical accuracy’ and ‘thought conveyance’. According to Brunette (2000: 174), ‘assessment criteria’ or ‘assessment parameters’, ‘evaluation standards’ should be easy to understand, practical, limited in number and verifiable (based on the successful use of an assessment procedure).

Masoud (1988: 19-24) lists eight criteria for a good translation:

- A good translation is easily understood.
- A good translation is fluent and smooth.
- A good translation is idiomatic.
- A good translation conveys, to some extent, the literary subtleties of the original.
- A good translation distinguishes between the metaphorical and the literal.
- A good translation reconstructs the cultural/historical context of the original.
- A good translation makes explicit what is implicit in abbreviations, and in allusions to sayings, songs, and nursery rhymes.
- Above all, a good translation will convey as much as possible the meaning of the original.

The above criteria Masoud suggests can be applied as tests to distinguish between a translation that communicates and one that is incomprehensible or misleading.

The above criteria can be applied to both students’ translation and professional translation. For students’ translation, Mason (1987: 80) suggests using criteria from translation criticism, but does not specify what exactly those criteria are.

There is everything to be gained from applying the same criteria to assessment of student work as those applied in the exercise of translation criticism; that is, the evaluation of a (published) target language text compared to its source language text.

However, Fawcett (2000: 295-305) uncovers what he calls 'parameters' defining the usually implicit framework within which translation criticism is conducted. These he extracted by means of examining a sample of reviews of some literary translations in the following: preference for transparent translation; strong dislike of source-oriented modes of translation; paucity of evidence to back up criticism; a tendency to offer no analysis to justify a criticism; criticism made on the basis of undefined authority; the non-provision of information that to academics is standard; very infrequent attempts to provide the reader with the original text and a remarkable degree of frankness in negative criticism.

Adopting Mason's approach in students' translations conflicts with the concept of purpose that many consider as a crucial aspect in any translation quality assessment, e.g. Sager (1989: 91):

Appropriate translations for the purpose for which they are intended.

Hatim and Mason (1997: 197) stress the need to distinguish between the activities of assessing the quality of translations (e.g. House 1982), translation criticism and translation quality control on the one hand and those of assessing performance (e.g. Nord 1991: 160-3) on the other. Their distinctions can be clarified by Hartley's (1991: 56) own differentiation between translation for professional purposes and academic purposes. This distinction is drawn on the grounds that:

One outcome of professional translation¹³ is that the translated text enters into a network of existing texts and at the same time creates the possibility for the extension of the network through the writing of other texts in reaction to it.

On the other hand, translation for academic purposes is, in his view, an ill-defined activity in which students are instructed to translate into the target language a short extract of text for an unspecified purpose or person (*ibid.*)

The present study is preoccupied by performance evaluation looking at errors committed by students both at the level of individual items and beyond the sentence. As Hatim and Mason (1997: 200) make clear, one challenge in translation performance assessment is to define levels of mastery of criteria in sufficiently objective terms for them to be usable by different testers in different situations. The issue of standardizing criteria for assessing students' translations will be addressed in Chapter Four: Section One in which the raters' guide (see Appendix 2) is tested in inter- and intra- reliability tests.

2.2.2.3. Existing models of translation assessment

Lauscher (2000: 150-158) summarizes models of translation quality assessment in two groups: equivalence-based approaches (e.g. Reiss 1971; House 1977 and 1997) and functional approaches (Reiss & Vermeer 1984; Vermeer 1989a, 1996; Nord 1993). Equivalence-based translation theories (cf. 2.1.1.), as Lauscher (2000: 151) states, view translation as the attempt to reproduce the source text at all levels (e.g. Reiss 1971), or at the semantic and pragmatic level (House (1977 and 1997) as closely as possible. Functional approaches see translation "as a process of text

¹³ Hartley (1991: 55) adopts Hatim and Mason's (1990: 2-3) view of translation for professional purpose "as a process, involving the negotiation of meaning between producer and receivers of texts".

production on the basis of a source text, and the target text is considered as a text in its own right”, (Lauscher 2000: 156).

Most existing evaluative approaches in translation quality assessment are error-based, a preponderance challenged by Bastin (2000: 236) who suggests looking for passes in a student’s translation which can be evaluated positively and offers what he calls the positive approach. He argues that while error analysis might have relevant impact on teaching, in that trainees learn what not to do, it provides them with little help in the way of what should and must be done. The view of a pragmatic model for evaluating the degree to which a translation has succeeded (Fawcett (1987) besides being flexible and practical, also adopts a positive approach. To Wills (1982: 216) too, translation assessment should take into account both positive and negative factors.

Among the works that propose schemes for translation quality assessment and methods of grading translated texts for professional certification or student assessment are Hosington and Horguelin (1980), Fau (1990) and Cascallar et al. (1996). For example, Cascallar et al. (1996: 294-311), who also provide an overview of different guidelines for translation assessment from early 80s onwards, propose scalar guidelines of five levels referring to different qualities and quantities of ability as levels are compared. The evaluator can use the guidelines from both directions: from level 5 down to level 0 as well as vice versa to assess the translator’s reading proficiency in the donor language, the translator’s writing proficiency in the receptor language, and the translator’s ability measured on the congruity scale.

Sager (1989) distinguishes between what he calls macro evaluation, and micro evaluation. The first he explains, aims at assessing the value of the product (summative assessing value) while the second aims at improving the product

(formative, comparing values). This distinction can serve the objectives of the teachers of translation; they can use the first to assess examinations while they implement the latter during the course to guide students toward better performance.

2.2.2.4. Criticism

One criticism about translation assessment in general is that it is under-researched (Cao 1996: 525 and Hatim and Mason 1997: 197). Another criticism targeted at most translation quality systems is that:

They are not underpinned by theory at all, at least in any principled or even conscious way on the part of their designers (Campbell 1998: 8).

Translation quality assessment is further militated against for being unsystematic, subjective and based on undefined standards. Following Nord's model, Hulst (1997) adopts text analysis in the context of translation assessment of both ST and TT, though the first step according to Hulst is the analysis of the target text (ibid. 103). Still, this model, in which she focuses on the translated text as an independent product rather than as a derivative one (ibid. 103) came under criticism for its focus on the TT when making quality judgements despite the ST still providing the starting point. For example, Hartley (1991) argues that the quality of the target language cannot be the only criterion of assessment. He also claims that the notion of appropriateness evaporates when it is a question of applying translation for the purpose of assessing comprehension. In her model, Hulst concentrates on what she calls texts for specific purposes, written for a broad audience, such as tourist brochures, information leaflets and advertisements because when this kind of text is translated, the effect is the

‘functional equivalence’ (ibid. 102). However, others consider criteria for “quality” may well depend on the purpose of the translation.

In other words, while the first view is looking at texts that have to serve a real-world purpose (i.e. where skopos is important, cf. Section One of this chapter), the latter looks at translation as a language-testing tool. Moreover, assessing students’ translations (as in the present study) adds a further academic purpose, which is research in translation and translating for training.

Hatim and Mason (1997: 198) are also opposed to translation performance assessment in translation training programs to test students’ achievement, primarily because they are difficulty-based tests in which all skills involved in translating are tested at once. In their opinion, errors-based translation performance tests do not necessarily show which skill is deficient; Nord (1991: 160-1) is also critical of translation assessment based on difficulty alone.

In the present study, evaluation of students’ performance in translation tasks was conducted according to criteria elicited from the data itself (Chapter Four: Section One). After being tested for reliability (inter-rater reliability test and intra-reliability test), a rater-guide (see Appendix 2) was used in evaluating students’ translation products.

One area that is directly associated with translation assessment, “errors in translation”, will now be discussed.

2.2.3. Errors in translation

A recurrent flaw in each of the systems of assessments, Hatim and Mason (1997: 203) say, is their use of the term ‘error’, an unhelpful description for the majority of

instances in which some measurable, distinguishing feature might occur in a test response and when making judgements about the relative acceptability of the range of options from which the translator chooses. Discussion below will be devoted to exploring different definitions of errors in translations and classification and description of errors.

2.2.3.1. Errors: definitions and dimensions

Errors in translation are also referred to as defects (Pym 1991), mistranslations (Lauscher 2000) and mismatches (Hatim and Mason 1997). Pym (1992: 281) defines errors as a manifestation of a defect in any of the factors entering into the two skills of:

- The ability to generate a target-text series of more than one viable term (target text₁, target text₂, ... target text₃) for a source text.
- The ability to select only one target text from this series.

However, the more than one alternative is not always a necessary factor in translating.

Hatim and Mason's (1997: 203) definition of what they call "overt errors"¹⁴ differentiates between two categories: (1) significant (unmotivated) mismatches of denotational meaning between source and target text (subdivided into omissions, additions and substitutions); and (2) breaches of the target-language system (e.g. orthography, grammar).

Thus Newmark's (1993: 128) definition of an error as:

¹⁴ As the term is used in House (1981).

A case where a back translation or a segment of the translator's version would indisputably produce a segment of text differing from the original segment. If this were due to the translator's ignorance or incompetence, the result would be a poor translation,

addresses only the first category of an error referred to by Hatim and Mason above.

In the field of error analysis in language teaching a distinction is often made between errors and mistakes. Errors are defined by Enkvist (1973: 19) as breaches against linguistic structure proper related to competence, whereas mistakes are casual slips, breaches of normal patterns of performance. In translation, Pym (1993: 102-103) differentiates between mistakes and errors, the former occurring where a particular choice is wrong when it should have been right, and there are no shades in between, there are no clines. "Properly translation errors", he says, "result from situations where there is no clear-cut separation of right from wrong" (ibid).

Brunette (2000: 179) suggests that language errors which can be detected and corrected by computerized tools should not be included in quality assessment. This perspective is certainly open to dispute: why not employ this software if it can reveal poor translation, particularly when she herself suspects that at its most advanced it can detect the sort of linguistic interference which she deems to be one of the most dangerous pitfalls for translators?

Holmes (1988: 60) also distinguishes between errors and mistakes from his own experience in translating poetry. He says incidental mistakes - those which do not make logical or poetic nonsense out of the poem as a whole - are not really as important as they are often made out to be. Given this distinction, errors in this study must be seen as the more severe of the two since they have to do with underlying competence rather than performance.

Newmark (1993: 29-30) seems to use mistakes as the more generic term. Mistakes are differentiated into two further types depending on their severity: “misleading” or “nuanced”. In the case of misleading mistakes:

The degree of seriousness of these mistakes is a function of their functional or intrinsic importance in the text (ibid.).

They can be (a) referential – that is misstatements of fact, or (b) linguistic. The ‘nuanced’ mistakes are either (a) stylistic - mistakes of usage or of register, or (b) lexical, where unnecessary synonyms or paraphrases are used. He goes on to refer to the category of what he calls nuanced mistakes as errors;

I think these errors should be avoided, but they only become mistakes in authoritative¹⁵ or expressive texts (ibid.).

This is explained as follows:

Errors may be personal, harmless, make little difference either way (not to the author, not to the reader), are sometimes in the taste area (ibid.).

Nord (1991: 94) emphasizes the concept of conventions¹⁶ in translation (or norms¹⁷ in Hermans’ (1999) terms:

No matter whether the translator has violated the convention intentionally or inadvertently, the reader will be deceived without realizing it.

¹⁵ See discussion on authoritative texts in this chapter: Section One, 7. Methods of Translations.

¹⁶ Hermans (1999: 81) gives Lewis’ (1975) definition of conventions as quoted in Fokkema (1989:4): conventions are regularities in behaviour which have emerged as arbitrary but effective solutions to recurrent problems of interpersonal coordination.

¹⁷ Hermans (1999: 81) argues that conventions are not norms. While he agrees with the definition of conventions given by Lewis (1975) as quoted in Fokkema (1989:4), he thinks that norms are stronger, perspective versions of social conventions.

What counts in teaching translation and research alike, is when errors are recurrent in students' translations, an approach this study also adopts, i.e. what is alarming is when errors form a pattern or a spreading phenomenon:

An error analysis should be based primarily on recurrent, systematic errors that are made by a number of learners and that can be readily traced to their sources, no matter whether they reflect defects in knowledge or whether they result from inadequate habit formation. We therefore suggest that the catalogue outlined above should only be applied to recurrent mistakes (Duskova 1969: 16)¹⁸.

But, for the purpose of the present study, mistakes will form a sub-type of (not serious) errors in the overall classification of errors in the subjects' translations. Mistakes are defined as inappropriate output which can be judged as performance "slips" and which subjects identify as such during revision or when directly asked about their intentions. However, statistically they will be included in the analysis, although, in terms of ranking they will be regarded as minor.

As to what meant by the term 'error', this study adopts Hatim and Mason's (1997: 203) definition of error as mismatches of propositional meaning or breaches of the target language code (see above). It also adopts Hatim and Mason's (1997: 165) differentiation between language and textual errors, when they refer to language errors as mismatches of propositional meaning or breaches of the target language code and to textual errors as mismatches of text and context. While the former may be due to inadequate *language* competence on the part of the translator, the latter may be due to problems of *textual* competence.

¹⁸ Quoted in Steinbach (1981).

2.2.3.2. Classification and description of errors

A two-distinction categorization division seems to be common in classifying errors in translation. According to Pym (1991), errors fall into two categories; ‘binary’ and ‘non-binary’. A binary error, he explains, opposes a wrong answer to the right answer, whereas non-binary errors can be judged as correct with some weakness, not demonstrably right or wrong. Binary errors, as Pym puts it, belong to the level of grammar, morphology, system, and lexis, i.e. language features. Non-binary errors are more translation-based phenomena, based on the misapplication of strategies such as addition, omission, selection and ordering. Kussmaul (1995:129) also distinguishes between binary and non-binary errors in the same way.

In assessing his own translation from Swedish to English, Weinstock (1988) says he makes two categories of error: *intellectual errors* and *dictionary errors*. Under the former he says, “are included errors of comprehension, portions of text that I have simply misunderstood. By dictionary errors I mean cases where I have been led astray by my reference materials”.

Although in the field of teaching translation lists of descriptions of errors in translation are more detailed, from a different perspective the two distinction categorization is also common. For example, Steinbach (1981) and Sager (1983) adopt the two distinction approach, dividing them according to the type of error and the level of error. Following the traditional levels of linguistic description, Steinbach (1981: 251) classifies errors in orthography, grammar (morphology and syntax) and lexis according to established criteria such as non-acceptable spelling, grammatical or lexical choice. Classifying by type involves the following: addition, omission, selection, ordering. Steinbach adopts a rating from, what he describes as two parallel

viewpoint, in classifying and describing translation errors: one level of analysis (lexis) is constituted by the given meaning in L1 and the related choice in L2, whilst a second level (grammar) covers acceptability in L2 independent of the meaning in L1 (ibid. 250). What is problematic about this system of classification is the exclusive distinction between L1 and L2 errors as the case is not always either/or.

Alternatively, Sager's (1983) model involves five categories, each working at a linguistic, semantic or pragmatic level. The five types of errors are:

1. Invention of meaning.
2. Omission.
3. Addition.
4. Deviation.
5. Modification.

On the other hand, Mauriello (1992: 64) proposes what she calls a taxonomical list of abbreviations denoting the most frequent errors in translations at university level.

1. Nonsense (N)
2. Misunderstanding (M)
3. Tense (T)
4. Structure (Str)
5. Grammar (G)
6. Topology (Top)
7. Overtranslation (Un)
8. Omission (V)
9. Word (W)
10. Form (F)
11. Style (St)

She adds another dimension by assigning a rating to each error, from 10 down to 1. At a lower, secondary school level, Heltai (1996: 78) classifies students' errors by following a scheme developed on the basis of Lado (1964), Arabski (1979) and Laufer (1989):

1. Errors related to form:

- Similar-sounding forms.
- False cognates.
- False transparency.

2. Errors related to meaning:

- Polysemy.
- Field differences.

- Hyponymy.
- Undifferentiated meaning.
 - Lexical gap.
 - Culturally bound terms.
- Synonymy (TL).
- Collocations.
 - Habitual.
 - Creative.
 - Idiomatic.

3. Errors not related to linguistic competence:

- Lack of translation skills (translation of proper names, etc).
- Lack of background knowledge.
- Lack of dictionary using skills.
 - Does not find in dictionary and cannot determine from context.
 - Cannot adjust meaning found in dictionary to context.

No doubt there is an overlap between the categories in all the above models of classifying translation errors, whether at the level of pre-university education, university level, translation schools, or special translation training programs. Furthermore, while certain errors appear only at a lower level, others could persist even at higher levels and some might still manifest themselves in the product of the professional translator.

With reference to English-Arabic translation experiments involving evaluating students' translation, Rosenhouse (1989) constructed a model for what she calls "mistranslation categories" on the basis of "macro-structures" and "micro-structures". The macro-structures include propositional content, and communicative function while the communicative function includes two sub-groups, explicit and implicit communicative functions. The micro-structures include elements at the level of words (vocabulary and expressions), parts of speech/verb tense, reference, cohesion elements, and register. This latter category includes unacceptable translations in native language when it is the TL, e.g. grammatical errors in Arabic.

What is most striking about the above classifications is that they are different. As for errors per se, however, there does seem to be agreement about the existence of two main categories of errors: meaning-based errors and language-based (Bastin 2000: 236). Bastin attributes the first to faulty analysis of the source text and the second to inadequate mastery of the target language and/or of the source language.

As far as this study is concerned, the two label division used with such variety by many, has proved useful. It also adopts a two-division approach in classifying errors as language errors and text level errors (see Chapter Four, Section Two). The former includes errors in grammar, vocabulary and spelling; the latter includes errors of 'sequences' and 'text' at the level of discourse, i.e. errors beyond individual items or phrases which cover rhetorical and stylistic devices (e.g. irony and repetition), cohesion, background knowledge, register and culture. This classification includes both those 'binary' and 'non-binary' errors referred to by Pym (1992: 282) and does not single out what he calls the 'so-so' errors: "it's correct, but ...".

Since errors in translation are looked at in this study as a result of translation problems and considered as a reflection of them, the rest of this chapter will be devoted to discussing translation problems: their definition, description, classification and ranking.

2.2.4. Translation problems

While a translation problem should be defined in its wider concept as anything in a text that does not translate straightforwardly or unaided, in this study they are defined largely in the context of the outcome of the translation (i.e. in relation to what result in errors).

Translation problems are allocated various titles in the literature, such as ‘challenges’ and ‘pitfalls’ (Clark 2000: 20)¹⁹. Others alternate between ‘difficulties’ and ‘problems’ (Pontiero 1992; Mauriello 1992). Newmark (1980) also uses problems and difficulties together, without differentiating between the two labels.

A translation problem which Newmark (1993: 2) characterizes as “a stretch of text of any length which is not readily amenable to literal or word for word translation” is looked at in this study from different perspectives. As for the more general question of what a translation problem actually is, the definition given by De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981: 37) to a *problem* and its ranking and solving is highly relevant to the way we look at a translation problem and its ranking in terms of difficulty in the present study:

¹⁹ Clark here refers to the difficulties confronted by Rana Kabbani in translating Mahmud Darwish’s poetry from Arabic to English.

A PROBLEM is defined as a pair of states whose connecting pathway is subject to FAILURE (not being traversed) because it can't be found or identified. A SERIOUS PROBLEM would obtain if the chances of failure significantly outweigh those of success. The problem is said to be SOLVED when a pathway is found leading without interruption from the INITIAL STATE to the GOAL STATE. If a point is reached where the problem-solver cannot advance at all toward the goal, a BLOCK has occurred.

While the above quote relates more to perceived process difficulty, the focus in this study is mainly on product error when 'error' means failure to solve a problem.

More relevant to the present study is Nord's (1987 a, 1991: 151) distinction between what she calls translation problems and translation difficulties:

A translation problem is an objective problem which every translator (irrespective of his level of competence and of the technical conditions of the work) has to solve during a particular translation task ... translation difficulties, on the other hand, are subjective and have to do with the translator himself and his specific working conditions".

In her distinction - as I understand it - Nord states that while a problem may exist that the translator is aware of, the term 'difficulty' describes a problem regarding the type of the trouble it creates and the ease with which the translator overcomes it. Regarding translation difficulties, Nord says,

A particular translation problem which seems very difficult to the beginner will remain a translation problem, even when the student has learned to cope with it. It can turn into difficulty again, though, if the translator has to solve it without the necessary technical resources (ibid.).

In this study, although my use of problem subsumes difficulties, difficulty is not used as a substitute for problem. This study adopts Nord's distinction and develops it further to the following model:

A translation *problem* is a potential obstacle due to lack of skill or/and language difference and *difficulty* is a consciously perceived problem; a problem can be *difficult* (i.e. takes trouble to solve) or can be easy (takes no trouble to solve). The outcome, if a translation problem is solved, is correct translation (acceptable TT). If not solved, the result is incorrect translation (unacceptable TT), or, an error (defective translation resulted from unsuccessfully solved problem). An error can be severe (blocks communication or conveys wrong information) or mild (does not block communication).

Our definition of translation problems in this study has more than one dimension: difficulties, which are likely to occupy the mind of the trainee student carrying out the task of translation, are what we call consciously perceived problems. Others, however, might not be consciously perceived by the translator (student), but may still result in error.

What determines the hierarchy of the problem is the outcome, or product translation. Some of the consciously perceived problems might only lead to hesitation but eventually are solved while some might indeed result in a defective translation or sometimes completely impede the process. Here we have a process/product distinction: What occupies the translator's mind would naturally refer to the "process" of translation, which would potentially involve hesitation when looking for translation strategies. Defective translation, on the other hand, has to do with "product", the type

of error with which this study is concerned (for product/process oriented experimentation in translation studies, see Section One of this chapter).

2.2.4.1. Classification of translation problems

In the field of empirical research in translation, translation problems have been classified in two categories: comprehension problems and production problems (Lam 1995: 912-913). Comprehension problems are related to understanding the ST. They refer to a word, phrase or sentence with which the translator got stuck and had to comprehend or to think of an appropriate equivalent. Production problems are concerned with the production of proper equivalents.

Fang (1959: 110) looks at handling what he calls the 'problem of translation' from three angles:

Adequate comprehension of the translated text, adequate manipulation of the language translated into, and what happens in between.

The last aspect in the above quotation is what is termed nowadays the 'translation process'. As far as this study is concerned, these three comprise other sub-categories of problems (cf. Chapter Five: Discussion).

By contrast, Wilss (1995: 858) differentiates between problems at two levels: macrocontext and microcontext (cf. 2.2.3.2 Rosenhouse's classification of errors). For macrocontextual problem-solving operations, she explains, the translator needs a plan that is oriented toward the totality of the text to be translated. Here the attention is focused on what the content implies, i.e. the communicative purpose and the intended readership. Microcontextual matters, on the other hand, include words and phrases.

Under 'translation problems', Nord (191: 151) proposes four categories: (a) text-specific translation problems; these problems arise from the particular features of the source text, e.g. a play on words. (b) pragmatic translation problems; these problems arise from the nature of the translation task itself, e.g. the recipient orientation of the text; (c) cultural translation problems; these problems arise from the differences in norms and conventions between the source and the target culture, e.g. text -type conventions; (d) linguistic translation problems; these problems arise from the structural differences between source and target language. Nida (1976) sums up translation problems under two categories: problems of content and problems of form.

In the context of teaching translation, Newmark (1980: 128) refers to what he calls typical translation problems as:

The most common equivalent grammatical structures and their variants in each language in relation to English; the various methods of rendering institutional terms, including couplets and triplets; the methods of normalizing idiolect, including the reduction of wayward or stock metaphors to sense; ... when to distinguish SL synonyms; how to deal with neologisms, acronyms, eponyms, proper names, statistics; how to do a quick practical componential analysis, etc.

What Newmark seems to mean by typical translation problems above is the most frequent problems related to both language features and strategies of transfer.

Nida and Taber (1969) add to the list their own notion of personal problems. Included among these problems, are those such as too much knowledge of the subject matter, taking translationese for granted insecurity about one's own language, a desire to

preserve the mystery of language”²⁰, wrong theological presuppositions²¹, ignorance of the nature of translation. Masoud (1988: 36-38) makes her own addition to these ‘personal problems’, which she calls problems related to the translator among them are too much interest in linguistic subtleties and too little respect for the reader, wrong focus, too little respect for the source text, too little knowledge of words that are identical but have different meanings. Those problems which lead to translations - comprehensible or not – that convey a meaning that is quite different from the one originally intended are mainly due to insufficient knowledge of the second language (SL) or lack of writing skills in one’s own language (ibid. 10-11). Here, Newmark (1981: 9) also states that all translation problems resolve themselves into problems of how to write well in the target language, which is usually one’s own language. Other problems Masoud refers to and which come under ‘personal problems’ are insufficient knowledge of the culture (SL), lack of awareness of historical changes in the meaning of words, or unsophisticated understanding of a language (SL), especially where metaphors and idioms are concerned. She identifies two parlous errors that result from the above mentioned problems Firstly, although translators can give a literal, lexical rendering of the text, their translations are often incomprehensible. Worse, they can be comprehensible but convey a meaning that is quite different from the one originally intended (Masoud 1988:10).

The above models share many aspects but differ in the labeling. For example, some people’s personal problems (e.g. Masoud’s poor SL understanding) are other people’s

²⁰ Quite genre/purpose-specific. For an evangelical Christian who is dedicated to spreading Christianity, clear communication of the message would be more important than reproducing the ST’s mysticism and poetry.

²¹ This is because Nida focuses on religious Bible translation, which might not be relevant to translating other texts. However,, a secular equivalent might be “wrong world-knowledge assumptions”.

comprehension problems. Moreover, Wilss's classification of problems is Rosenhouse's classification of errors (see above) while, as explained earlier, this study distinguishes between the two as potential/process/cause vs. outcome/text/effect.

However, in a more structured collection of what he calls Translation Problems from A to Z, Blight (1992) lists translation problems alphabetically and arrange them into nine topics, each including a number of sub-categories. Below I show the latter list.

TABLE (1): TOPICAL LISTING OF CATEGORIES

DISCOURSE	Symbolism
Chiasmus	Unknown idea
Chronological order of events	
Cohesion/transition	LEXICON
Discourse unit	Collocation
Formula	Connotation
Genre	Idiom
Information load	Key biblical term
Participant reference	Lexical correspondence
Perspective /direction	Proper name
Poetry	
Prominence	RHETORIC AND HIGHLIGHTING
Relationship between proposition	Apostrophe
Speech question	Doublet
Theme	Euphemism
	Figurative extension
EXEGESIS AND TEXT	Form
Double meaning (author intended ambiguity)	Hendiadys
Interpretation of source text	Hyperbole
Old testament quotation	Irony
Textual variant	Litotes (rhetoric and highlighting)
	Metaphor
COMMUNICATION	Metonymy
Accuracy in translation	Parable and allegory
Ambiguity in translation	Parallelism
Assumed information	Personification
Clarity in translation	Repetition
Emotive focus	Rhetorical question
Illocutionary force	Simile
Implicature	Sound symbolism
Naturalness in translation	Synecdoche
Omission of information in translation	Vocative
Sociolinguistic setting	Zeugma
GRAMMAR	RECEPTOR LANGUAGE AND SETTING
Comparative relation	Book introduction
Condition	Book title
Ellipsis	Cross reference
Genitive in source text	Footnote
Negation	Front and back matter
Other grammatical relationships	Glossary
Passive voice	Influence
Pronominal reference	Layout in receptive language
Relative clause	Numbering
Skewing between grammar and semantics	Orthography issues
Tense and aspect	Parallel passage
	Picture selection
CULTURE	Section Heading
Anachronism	
Cross-cultural mismatch	MISCELLANEOUS
Cultural substitute	

Some of the terms in the above taxonomy are similar to Nida's relating specifically to Bible translation, e.g. 'Old testament quotation' and 'Key biblical term'.

Mauriello (1992: 64) sets what she calls reference measures for assessing the difficulty level of how problematic a text is based on 'typology' criteria, enabling her to classify the degree of difficulty of a text. This, she claims, can also identify the types of difficulties contained in the text. According to this 'typology' of difficulty, a problem can be placed as:

1. Lexicon, semantics, idioms.
2. Syntax, structure.
3. Terminology.
4. Concepts, logic.
5. Style, register, tone.
6. Language for special purposes (phraseology).

She suggests that teachers create rating scales to classify various types of difficulties accordingly, ranging from minimum to maximum.

However, Duff (personal communication) said, "I would not agree with this rigid division. The above division into syntactic, semantic, and stylistic seems to be quite impossible" (see also his view on how translation problems should be introduced in a translation course in the introduction). For the second he says, "I have tried to make similar convenient distinctions, but they rarely work because the 'difficulties' – e.g. word order, register, style/ emphasis, punctuation – can rarely be separable!"

In relation to translating into Arabic, Gazala (1995) provides a relatively comprehensive three way classification list of translation problems: grammatical,

lexical and stylistic, and offers some suggestions to solve those problems. Nonetheless, many of his examples to illustrate problems are fabricated, out of context and often are stating the obvious, besides the omission of other, high ranking problems. Below is the list as shown in the table of contents in the book.

TABLE (2): TABLE OF CONTENTS (TRANSLATION PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS)

Grammatical Problems	Lexical Problems	Stylistic Problems
Verb "Be"	Literal translation	Formality vs. informality
Verb "Do"	The translation of synonyms	Fronting
Verb "Have"	Polysemy and monosemy	Parallelism
Modals	The translation of collocations	Ambiguity
Questions	Special fixed phrases: idioms & proverbs	Simple style
Negation	Figurative language: metaphors	Short sentences
Nominal sentences vs. verbal sentences	Technical translation: Arabization	Long sentences
Word order	Proper names	Repetition and variation
Personal pronouns	Titles	Redundancy
Present participle vs. gerund	Political establishments	Expressivity
Past participle	Geographical terms	Nominalization vs. verbalization
Adjectives	UN acronyms	
Tenses		
Conditional sentences		
Word classes		
Articles		

Although Gazala mentions in his introduction phonological problems, he proceeds to evade discussion about them in the main corpus in his book on the basis - as he claims - they are quite complicated for students of translation at the early stages and are limited to advertising and literature, especially poetry.

Turning to teaching translation in the Arab world, Shaheen (1997) devotes his study to three problematic areas that he calls text-related problematical areas, which are expected to occur in the TT situation, namely connectivity, punctuation and paragraph organization rather than lexis and syntax. This, in fact, complements Gazala's list.

All the above taxonomies rely on the trainer's intuition – they do not have a basis in empirical research. Taxonomies based on empirical research, such as Al Kenai (1985), Alghussain (2003)²² and the present one, would be more useful in giving a clearer picture, both in identifying problems and assigning them to their causes.

Moreover, most existing taxonomies are only two level hierarchies, with items appearing unordered and random within the larger categories. The added level to the taxonomy in this study is to sort problems further.

In this study, the focus is on problems related to SL features and TL/TT features, and as I use texts in Duff (1989), the starting point is the problems listed in his classification.

Below is a copy of the table of contents as it appears in the book.

²² Both investigate linguistic and cultural problems of English-Arabic translation.

TABLE (3): TABLE OF CONTENTS FROM DUFF (1989) TRANSLATION

1	Context and register	Context clues Matching pairs Implication Alternatives Transformation Odd man out Colloquial expressions Word play
2	Word order and reference	Stress and emphasis Word order: opening words Reformation and repetition Articles Compounds Reference and meaning Short cuts: contractions and substitutes
3	Time: tense, mood, and aspect	The -ing, -ed, and -en forms Passive forms Conditionals Time: tense, adverbs, and prepositions
4	Concepts and notions	Choice of words: Call my bluff Choice of words: definitions and distinctions Choice of words: word play Possibility and ability Causality: consequence, effect, and result Perception: seeing and understanding
5	Idiom: from one culture to another	The text: defective and ambiguous sentences, Choice of words, familiar expressions, colloquialism, Variation on theme: reformulations, reverse translation Spoken language: written language: speech in writing, subtitles and synchronization

The present study adopts a two distinction classification to differentiate between two types of translation problems: language problems and text-level problems that accordingly result in language errors and text-level errors respectively (Hatim and Mason: 1997). Since this study focuses on text related problems and its analytical framework is based on language features, personal problems as referred to by Nida and Taber (1969) and Masoud (1988) are of very little relevance here, though they may help to explain the language features-related problems investigated in the present study. Moreover, they could relate to the variable of translator experience (e.g. undergraduate vs. postgraduate; investigating group “personal” effects) (cf. Chapter Five: Discussion and Chapter Six: Conclusion; suggestions for further research).

2.2.4.2. Ranking translation problems

The ranking of translation problems enables one to design translation training programs accordingly. One of the principles of many teaching translation programs is that progress should be from easy to difficult (cf. 2.2.1.), which implies taking into consideration the order of the types of the texts selected for training and the degree of complexity within these types of text (Shaheen 1997: 105). However, this is by no means an absolute fact and remains an assumption as authentic teaching material would naturally include various language features that vary in difficulty. Nevertheless, a ranking could help to detect which problems require more teaching and/or practice time to solve and those which need relatively little or which only advanced trainees could tackle successfully. In ranking translation problems there seem to be three different approaches: ranking according to text type, the inter-textual level approach and translation training approach.

2.2.4.2.1. Text type approach

In a rough ranking of translation problems within the context of degrees of translatability, Sager (1993) classifies translation problems on a scale ranging from what he calls maximum uncertainty to greatest ease of translation. Difficulty of translation results from what he calls conflicting demands, while ease of translation he sees as deriving from maximum restriction and prescription of tasks, thus leading to the use of pre-established equivalents. His criteria for such a classification is based on the concept of the existence or absence of units of equivalence between linguistic items of two languages which, he says, may be established according to text type (cf. 2.1.3.3), sub-language, text segments or whatever other criteria may be considered to be relevant (Sager 1993: 131). At the top of the difficulty scale Sager places puns,

anagrams, palindromes and other plays on words which he says cannot be translated, i.e. are untranslatable. These forms of word play, he explains, have to be 'recreated' in a target language, because they are entirely text-bound. Despite this fact, he maintains that degrees of translatability can be established relatively easily at the level of text types. According to this, Sager deems it possible to classify texts on a scale which ranges from maximum uncertainty to greatest ease of translation. On such a scale, poetry, texts of songs, jokes and film scripts rank among the most difficult because of their need to balance content with requirements of form; less problematic would be advertising texts such as tourist brochures and guide books, as well as plays, novels and religious texts. Even further down the scale fewer problems are encountered, as in journalistic, legal, economic and sociological texts, because of the numerous precedents which serve as models. Considerably less complex would be legal documents and court proceedings, which need to fit into established patterns and to conform to the existence of precise models. Official documents and scientific and technical texts offer still fewer problems as they are considered less context-dependent, and therefore less culture-bound.

By employing these criteria, Sager is confident that few if any obstacles should be encountered with such specific texts as cookery recipes and weather reports. This, he explains, is due to the fact that circumstances of use and readership are the same in the source and target language, and fixed models determine the accepted modes of expression. At the bottom of the scale - what he calls the extreme of translatability - such text forms as nomenclature lists, part lists, technical specifications and measurements, and labels can be translated as long as they already have precise equivalents in terms of text form and lexical items (ibid. 131-132).

Snell-Hornby (1988: 41) proposes:

A continuum of text type and relevant criteria where literary texts, especially those embedded in a culture of distant past, tend to be less easily translatable than those texts dealing with the “universals” of modern science.

To avoid generalization in this respect, for example, Pontiero (1992: 300) states that:

A seemingly artless tale for young children can throw up as many difficulties as lines from Dante or a particularly obscure passage from Racine, Cervantes or Quevedo.

This implies that broad notions of text-type are not very reliable indicators of difficulty, what is more reliable perhaps is specific features within the text whether language features (e.g. vocabulary and grammar) or textual feature (e.g. cohesion and register). Classifying texts according to text type is usually based on more prominent language features such as lexis or syntax. As texts are often of a hybrid nature when it comes to such features (i.e. a mix of features) (cf. Chapter Three, Section One), text type is almost certainly insufficient as an index of difficulty.

2.2.4.2.2. Macro/micro-textual level approach

Macro-textual level refers to the totality of the text (e.g. text-type) and micro-textual level refers to details in the text (e.g. content). Problems at the level of macrocontext Wills (1998: 58) says are only minor, whereas handling microcontextual problems often necessitates time-consuming, formulation and reformulation, with frequent leaping efforts of back and forth between the source text and the emerging target text. For Wills, these obstructions include: semantic vagueness, syntactic complexity and syntactic ellipses, the distribution of thematic and rhematic information in sentence

relationships, metaphorical expressions, ironic incongruities, distorted or ineffective formulations, morphological idiosyncrasies, adjectival-substantive collocations, gerundial and participial constructions, etc²³. Some of these problems can cause severe or even almost insurmountable difficulties, for even the experienced translator and hence are more difficult (Wills 1998: 58). Yet, Wills's ranking still takes text type into consideration; domain-specific texts such as technical reports or academic articles raise only minor problems at the level of macrocontext while literary texts are more difficult at the microcontextual level.

Triandis (1976: 229) classifies what one is to translate into two categories: universal or culture specific. The first concept such as fire, noon, and sun, he says produce fewer translation difficulties than the latter concepts, such as the Greek concept of *philotimia* or the Anglo-American concept of fairness.

By contrast, Nida (1976) considers problems of form to be generally more difficult to translate than problems of content:

One can much more easily analyze and describe the cognitive equivalences of content than the formal equivalences of language. That is to say, the componential features of cognitive meaning can be more readily transferred and, if necessary, redistributed from source to receptor language than the corresponding features of discourse structure, Nida (1976: 51).²⁴

²³ As far as this study is concerned, most of these problems are sub-categories belong to text-level problems, hence macro-problems as opposed to language problems exemplified by vocabulary and small units of grammar.

²⁴ For a continuation of this discussion, see Chapter Three, Section Two: Translation Problems in Context: Rhetorical and stylistic devices.

In the context of translation equivalence, where pairs of languages are compared in search for correspondence Farghal (1994:57) emphasizes that:

Comparing words or grammatical forms between languages looks simpler than comparing metaphors or proverbs, which is still simpler than comparing condolences at funeral or festivities at weddings. Moving from 'micro-levels' like words and phrases to 'macro-levels' like whole discourse transactions is always complicated and soon spills beyond the borders of the 'purely linguistic'.

Examining lexis, Saraireh (1994: 79) classifies technical terms in translating between English and Arabic as belonging to three categories: the first includes lexical items of the source language which have straightforward equivalents, the second items which have only partial equivalents, and the third items which do not have equivalents, so that the translator must coin or borrow terms.²⁵ In terms of ranking, he labels the first as fairly easy, with more effort being needed for the second type and the real problems coming from the third. A similar ranking system was initially proposed for the main categories and their immediate sub-categories in the present study.

2.2.5. Translation training approaches

A tendency of ordering progressively from easier to more difficult seems to be common in most translation training programs (e.g. Mauriello, 1992: 64). Shaheen (1997) proposes a course model of basic, intermediate and advanced stages:

²⁵ With regard to translating from English to Arabic, Saraireh focuses his discussion on the problem of lack of standardization across different Arab countries or even inside one country. In this respect, he presents three types: alternating between synonyms, e.g. 'vaccination' as *tatiim* or *talqih*, inconsistency whether to Arabise or borrow, e.g. 'telephone' as *haatif* or *tilifoon* and different derivations from the same Arabic stem alternate for the same English concept, e.g. 'chemical' as *kiimaawiyy* or *kimiyy*.

- First year: syntactic structures.
- Second year: semantic aspects.
- Third year: style, language for special purposes, and terminology.

To conclude this section on ranking translation problems the discussion above has shown that while a translation problem might be easy to define, ranking problems on a scale of difficulty is not something that can easily be agreed upon. However, as most, or maybe all, published classification scales have been based on intuition rather than on empirical data, empirical research on novice/student translators translating texts might well help to clarify things.

2.2.6. Summary

Section One in this literature review chapter has discussed translation theories, methods, models and strategies and techniques. In Section Two the main issues discussed are translation competence and translation performance, translation assessment, errors in translation and translation problems. Translation performance as a reflection of translation competence simply refers to the activity of translating. The acceptability of the product of such an activity is decided through translation assessment which applies certain criteria that signal identify errors. Among the various models for translation assessment, none seems to be comprehensive. For this reason this study devises its own system of assessment based on detailed classification, not only at the level of the main categories, but also at the level of sub-categories and the sub-sub-categories. Although a few models call for investigation into positive signals in student's translation performance, like the overwhelming majority of models, this study embarks on the analysis of errors. Though varying in severity, errors in this study are considered as symptoms of translation problems,

which themselves vary in the intensity of difficulty. Translation problems - a core issue in the above discussion and particularly as manifested by errors - will be the focus of the remainder of this study. In Chapter Three, translation problems will be investigated by translating a number of short texts representing a variety of *English* text-types.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCHER CASE-STUDY

3.1. Section One: Aims, Methods and Procedures

3.1.0. Introduction

Many of the issues in the previous chapter (Literature Review) are relevant to the discussion explored in this chapter which is a presentation of the researcher case-study. This first section discusses the procedures followed in the case-study. In Section Two (Translation Problems in Context) an account of the results of the case-study will be presented where problems which have appeared in authentic texts that proved to be challenging to the translator will be discussed in various categories. These problems will not be discussed in isolation, as links to the literature and references to any precedents will be made in each instance.

Before discussing the actual procedures, as this study has its specific aims and objectives, these are first enumerated. Then, a discussion of the value of the case-study, citing the methods and giving a full description of the data used in this study will follow. This section then concludes with a summary taxonomy of problems generated by the study. It is given here rather than after the data section to structure the discussion of the various problem categories in Section Two.

3.1.1. Aims and objectives of the pre-study

The aim of this preliminary case-study is to generate a taxonomy of translation problems as experienced or anticipated by the researcher that can work as an initial checklist of translation problems in translating from English into Arabic. Through translating the texts (cf. 1.6.) I, as the researcher, tried to find out about what

translation problem/s each text exhibits. The list put forward during this stage will subsequently act as a set of hypotheses for the main study, that is, the multi-subject study (Chapter Four). However, the idea of actually translating the texts has more than one precise objective:

Firstly, it is aimed at testing the suitability of the material selected in Duff's book *Translation* (1989) as a generator of English-Arabic translation problems for the purpose of this project. The fact that the texts were originally intended as translation activities to improve command of the English source language meant that their value for testing translation skills per se has to be established.

Secondly, it is hoped that translating the texts and looking through them closely will assist in the selection of those which are most representative of a range of problems with a view to testing them later with students, and to determine whether supplementary material is needed to fill any vacuum that exists in the chosen material.

Thirdly, with the experience of translating the texts myself I hope to gain an explicit insight into the nature of the translation problems posed by the texts under examination that will widen the scope in which I can analyze the actual data collected in the main multi-subject experiment.

3.1.2. The value of the initial case-study

Since the project as a whole is not based on prior hypotheses, this pre-study is used to lay the ground for the main study, where the data generated in the pre-study will be tested under more rigorous research conditions with a much larger group of learners. The pre-study findings, therefore, are not intended to be generalizable in isolation, but

they are intended to complement the raw data from the later study, by the depth of insight which the case-study research method provides.

This project as a whole is dependent on assumptions that in translating from English into Arabic some problems are encountered that will vary in degree. These assumptions first need to be substantiated by going through the experience of translating a selection of a wide range of texts. The value of the data generated in this case-study therefore lies in the fact that it is the product of a genuine, long-term personal experience, although personal intuition remains a major factor in generating and interpreting data. Even so, as Roberts (1992, 1995) points out, it is impossible to avoid total subjectivity in checklists both in terms of what one includes and in what one omits. It would also be erroneous to suggest that the checklist of problems generated by this case-study is exhaustive since it is to a certain extent restricted by the text-types in Duff (1989), but it is intended to be as wide ranging as possible. In terms of what is excluded (e.g. problems related to translating poetry, drama, subtitling and synchronization, etc) these are excluded on the basis that they form distinctive categories that are not usually included either in general or in undergraduate English-major translation modules.

3.1.3. Methods

The pre-study is a study in which I played the role of the subject. It is based on a written diary record of translation problems I came across whilst translating the texts in Duff (1989), plus language/cultural features that I felt might contribute to the presence of such problems. The method adopted in this study may, therefore, be characterized as an introspective researcher-based case-study. This method is not infrequent in applied linguistics research. Jones (1996) used self-observation in

foreign language self-learning where he (the learner) subjected himself to learning Hungarian for eleven months and used a learner's diary to record the process of learning during that period. Self-experiment in the use of introspective data in translation is also used by Krings (1987), who applied the 'think aloud' technique himself before his subjects undertook the translation task. Similarly, Mauriello (1992) used herself (in her terms) as a "guinea-pig" during the translation process. (For a full list of similar narratives of self-experiments in the field of social science, see Richardson, 1994: 521). My purpose here, however, is slightly different from the studies just mentioned. Self-experiment in the present study is not aimed at recording the process of translation itself, or measuring progress in learning or acquiring the skill of translation, it is rather an exploration tool by which translation problems are identified.

Besides the translator's diary, small scale questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were also used with native speakers of English who were approached as a human resource to supply information about the ST. Opinion and suggestions about the TTs were also obtained from professional translators via ordinary mail or telephone conversations. The actual procedures used in conducting the research are discussed in detail below (cf. 3.1.5.).

3.1.4. The material

The idea of researching this area of translation problems was inspired by the collection of texts in Alan Duff's book *Translation* (1989). Duff provides a variety of texts exhibiting language features that are assumed by the author to be problematic for students of different linguistic backgrounds translating from English into their own languages. It is thus an attempt by the author within the context of post-

communicative foreign language learning methodology to bring back translation into language teaching. What best describes the book is the following quotation:

Alan Duff's new book, *Translation*, OUP, is admirably suited for teachers and students of EFL at undergraduate level as a course in language enrichment. It could also be profitably used in professional translation courses where English is the target language. Duff provides an abundant variety of short extracts from well-written contemporary English texts, and draws attention to the richness of English styles and vocabulary, as well as its peculiar grammatical features which force choices on the translator (Newmark, 1993: 62).

The researcher had already used quite a number of the texts as translation exercises in actual classes with Libyan undergraduates for whom they proved challenging. The fact that numerous students experienced serious difficulties in translating the texts highlights the fact that the texts do exhibit a variety of translation problems that vary widely in difficulty and categorization, making them highly suitable when finding examples for the present study.

While the texts used proved to be useful in generating translation problems in actual teaching, the value of the rest had also to be tested. Moreover, it was useful to test under research conditions even those that were used with undergraduates. Therefore in the present pre-study, all texts were subjected to evaluation and assessment to determine how comprehensive they would be in providing us with the widest possible range of translation problems.

It still remains to elaborate on this quotation by further description of the way the book is formatted, and by giving more details about text features.

3.1.4.1. Organization

The book is divided into five sections of roughly equal length, each section concentrating on a particular area of language (see Table 3, Chapter Two, Section Two). They are:

- Context and register.
- Word order and reference.
- Time: tense, mood, and aspect.
- Concepts and notions.
- Idioms: from one culture to another.

The advantage for both the teacher and the researcher here is that we find in this book ready-made and pre-sorted sets of texts focusing on various aspect of language. Furthermore, each aspect is represented by a variety of texts from which we can select for testing. Also, the fact that the texts are chosen as being representative of features which characterize English fits in with our aim of focusing on problems specifically related to translating from English into Arabic. For research purposes, however, we need a finer classification of the problems raised by Duff's rough-and ready division. This is what prompted the pre-study, the aim of its investigation being to show the actual problems generated by the texts, which may or may not coincide with Duff's organization.

3.1.4.2. Text features

The texts are selected by the author to demonstrate certain grammatical, conceptual or idiomatic features of English writing. With regard to choice of texts, Duff (1989: 9-10) states that the idea behind his book was to offer a wide range of material which would most reliably reflect those aspects of English language which are both most

characteristic of the English language, and also most challenging to translate. If the material is used for translation training, it introduces the learners to an invaluable wide range of literary and non-literary discourse types and translation challenges. Being student-friendly²⁶ (range of topics, accessible, interesting, short, manageable, etc), the texts were suitable for both teaching and as material for experiment, for my target students (English majors taking translation modules rather than trainees taking a specialist translation degree), for whom highly technical and/or lengthy texts would be very daunting (cf. Chapter Four, Section One, Experiment Design, Material: Texts Selection).

Duff's criteria for material selection (pp 9-11) can be summed up as follows:

Difficulty: Texts are not chosen just because they contain linguistic traps. In fact they represent different language features, some of which can be tricky to translate, but the texts in general are claimed to represent characteristics of general English.

Suitability: Since the texts chosen should be of the kind which it would be natural to translate in everyday working life, most texts are extracts published for the general public, though some are chosen specially for their specialized register.²⁷

Style/ register: Texts are chosen on the basis of register (colloquial, semi-formal, formal, official, etc.), though with some texts there is a mixture of register and the line is not strictly drawn between one register and another.

²⁶ In assigning the different tasks related to the study that involved texts from the book, the nature of the texts being short and interesting helped in encouraging subjects to carry out the tasks. Some expressed that verbally.

²⁷ It can be counter argued on the basis that most real translators, in their working life, have to translate highly specialist texts, rather than just texts for the general public, though this does not invalidate them in training terms.

Text Length: While the majority of texts are short, there are a few longer texts which consist of more than two paragraphs, and so are helpful in investigating problems such as paragraph boundaries and punctuation. Moreover, one has to acknowledge that shorter texts are more manageable especially by over-worked students.

Context: The author (Duff) appreciates that in translation it is important to know from what context a particular passage has been drawn. The author has:

- provided the source/ title for every extract, however short,
- made no alteration to the original wording, though any cuts for the sake of brevity are indicated by (...),
- given as much of the surrounding context as seemed necessary for accurate translation.

To advocate the brevity of these texts, while short/ long enough to represent a certain problem with minimal surrounding context, they are not totally out of context. The phrases and words focused on are all presented in what we might call co-text (text surrounding a single word or phrase or sentence). Here Lang (1995: 151-52) says:

In attempting to interpret a text when contextual details concerning time, place or purpose are not available, the translator may from the co-text be able to reconstruct some part of the original context.

Moreover, what compensates for the lack of context is the large number of texts, which means greater coverage of more translation problems thereby enabling the investigation of a wide range of potential problem-types.

The exercises are presented in the form of activities in task sheets. In each task sheet the same language feature in focus is represented by various text extracts in different contexts (see Appendix 3 for an example).

What has to be emphasized, however, is that Duff has organized the texts with translation problems according to his own conceptualization of the characteristics of the English language irrespective of the TT. Thus because Duff's classification system is not based on English-Arabic, it cannot provide more than a very sketchy initial orientation as to what problems may be generated by the texts. Hence, this pilot/case-study is both to test a research-design hypothesis (how best to approach the task), and to generate hypotheses of what problems students translating from English into Arabic might encounter. Problems to be identified in this case-study, while interacting with Duff's categories, would have to be modified if necessary.

3.1.5. Procedures of exploring translation problems

As explained earlier, two key purposes of assessing the collection of texts are to generate problems related to translating from English into Arabic and thus to ascertain how many potential problematic areas the texts can cover in this respect. This can only be done by examining the texts for more problems than those specified in the original task sheets.

The actual process of generating a taxonomy of translation problems involved two main procedures: Text Translation and Source Text Analysis. Text translation and text analysis, though theoretically two separate activities, were often dealt with in the actual study hand in hand with little time between them. With some texts, I even wavered to and fro between the process of translation and analysis – as is often the

case in real life translation. Since text analysis was only reverted to when needed during text translation, I begin with text translation.

3.1.5.1. Text translation

The main method I used to answer the research questions in this first study was through the process of translating the texts, which were subjected to a close investigation.

Initially, in the process of translation I recorded the problems personally experienced text by text in a note-book, under headings referring to the nature of the problem (terminology, expression, metaphor, word order, etc.). I also wrote down notes in diary form, about those elements of the text in question which I anticipated might prove problematic for a trainee translator (if not always for myself) on the bases of differences between the two languages or the cultures of these languages, etc.

All problems which appeared to belong to the same category were subsequently grouped together with the examples illustrating them as extracted from the texts, and were listed separately in different sheets. Problems were recorded in English, some listed with a commentary elaborating on the nature of the problem in hand. A labeling system was created to identify the type of potential problem, e.g. cultural, grammatical, stylistic, pragmatic and so on. Problems were sometimes listed with their possible solutions, and commentaries also offered suitable solutions for the selection of the best solutions. The process of text translation was aimed not so much at providing solutions to translation problems as identifying as many potential problems as possible and exploring their nature. Searching for solutions, however,

helped in the process of determining what exactly a problem was and which were likely to be less severe.

Below is an example of a note sheet that illustrates a typical problem listing (first point) and commentary (second point). Collectively they represent stage one of the three stages mentioned above:

(Text 1: 80)²⁸ One of the words which to an Englishman conjures up the quintessence of embarrassment is a 'scene'. But in the Middle East and elsewhere in the South, 'scenes' between people explode continually in public and in private. They die down again just as quickly, leaving behind no 'atmosphere'.

(Anthony Parsons in *The Listener*)

Vocabulary: the words scene and atmosphere cannot be translated literally (problem). They need to be more elaborated upon (look for strategy).

(Solution) add a preposition and a relevant noun to the meaning; a scene of ... (an argument, a tiff or outbursts) and an atmosphere of ... (tense feeling). Also, the two words "public" and "private" do not translate straightforwardly (problem). The word "public" translates in different ways in different texts. Here, the most appropriate would probably be (على الملأ), i.e. in front of all. For private as used above the translation would probably better be (خلف الأبواب المغلقة), i.e. behind closed doors.

Cultural aspects (comment): this text is negotiating a cultural aspect where different cultures look at things differently; how scenes are perceived by an Englishman and how they are perceived further south and particularly in the Middle East. The implicit message in this text is about the reserved English pride and the concept of genteel behaviour relating to manners in public. That we should never air an argument as implied in the original might not sound so in the translation in a target culture in which free expression and verbal repartee are embraced as a natural part of life.

Besides the notes of categories of problems and commentaries recorded per text, some of the notes are researcher memos. Researcher memos are notes about checking the translation with a professional translator or coming back to the text. For example,

²⁸ As an organizational procedure and for convenience of referring back to texts, texts are numbered sequentially according to their order to each other and page location: e.g. Text 1: 80 means the first text appears in the thesis on page 80.

sometimes in the case of consulting a particular professional translator, I note down the name of the translator. In addition, memos were useful reminders for taking certain actions concerning specific aspects such as consulting a native speaker or turning to different resources.

Texts were translated in the order in which they are listed in the book. So as not to disrupt translation, problems which proved to be stubborn in one way or another were skipped or provided with a temporary solution at the time, but marked in for revision and another attempt at a later stage. If other solutions proved unsatisfactory, the preliminary one might become ultimate (see Shih 2000: 40-41). When the effort became strenuous, for the sake of continuity the task of translation was still carried out while activities accompanying the process of translation - such as recording the problems, writing commentary or resorting to resources for help - were postponed. These were then completed later at the revision stage. Suspect target texts (when there was uncertainty as to whether acceptable or not) were marked for more revision and editing or consulting professional translators.

However, text translation was not always a straightforward process, as texts occasionally entailed an extra effort, or source text analysis with the aim of better understanding the ST. This will be discussed in the next section.

3.1.5.2. Source text analysis

Before making decisions about the requirements of the text in hand in terms of strategies and resources, I found that the first reading usually gave me the chance to “get the feel” of the text. Source texts which were straightforward and posed no problems beyond the surface were translated directly. Others, which invited some

questioning at first glance or proved to be stubborn to translate, were subjected to a detailed analysis²⁹. The aim of the analysis was to explore more about the text so that its features could be identified; hence problems analyzed/specified are closely detected.

Text-analysis is intended to:

- check cultural issues,
- elaborate upon textual ambiguities,
- clarify the intention of the writer from the point of view of the recipient of the ST,
- find out how far readers perceive texts similarly or differently.

Some texts required a special knowledge of subject matter, as with texts in archaeology or science; here, it was thought wiser to approach professionals in the field.

The above were the procedures followed during text translation and text analysis. As far as resources are concerned, texts in both stages varied in their requirements, as will be explained below.

3.1.5.3. Resources

Besides dictionaries, resources included professional translators, native speakers of English - including subject matter experts – and native speakers of Arabic. Professional translators were consulted about the reliability of the translation and the accuracy of the assumed translation problems. Native speakers of Arabic were also

²⁹ Source text analysis used here is not in the sense of componential analysis at all levels but more in the sense described by Mason (1982: 23) that involves eliciting from the text as much information as possible about form and content together with, if possible, information concerning origin, authorship, and purpose.

consulted as second readers of the TT. Each of these human resources will be discussed below in some detail, along with examples which demonstrate the contribution they made to the study.

3.1.5.1. Professional translators (PT)

Almost all initial contacts with professional translators were through telephone calls using names and telephone numbers provided by the Institute of Translators and Interpreters (ITI) in London. The aim of calling them up was to ask them if they were willing to participate in the research. Those who expressed their willingness, fifteen based in London, Birmingham, and Bristol, were sent formal letters in which more details were included and in which the task was enclosed. Out of the fifteen, twelve subjects actually participated: ten Arabs of four Arab nationalities (Libyan, Lebanese, Egyptian, and Iraqi), one English Arabist, and one Pakistani.

The opinion of professional translators was consulted to check the TT accuracy. Corrections made by the professional translators were taken as indications of assumed problems. In other cases their opinions were sought for preference between different versions, as in the case of problems related to thematic preference in Arabic (see example below). Sometimes PTs were directly asked about the problem/s in the ST to assess their difficulty. This was done by providing PT with either:

- ST and one version of translation,
- ST and two different target versions for comparison and preference,
- ST for translation without providing a translation for it.

Professional translators' corrections, alterations and commentaries were of immense help in identifying problems.

Details of the professional translators' contribution to this study and the nature of their task in relation to particular translation instances will be discussed later in this chapter in Section Two: Translation Problems in Context. However, it is worth citing one example that shows how a professional translator's opinion did not correlate with mine in what would be a problematic text for a student translator. Text 2: 84 below was sent to a professional translator as demonstrating a problem of assumed background knowledge between the writer and the reader centering around the question 'what's it all about', but the main problem as identified by the professional translator was the idiom 'got an eye'.

Text 2: 84 My husband T. S. Eliot, loved to recount how late one evening he stopped a taxi. As he got in, the driver said: 'Ah. I've got an eye for a celebrity. Only the other evening I picked up Bertrand Russell and I said to him: Well, Lord Russell, what's it all about?-and, do you know, he couldn't tell me.'

(Valerie Eliot, letters to The Times)

Interestingly, in the main study, both expressions proved to be problematic for the learners. (See finding in Chapter Four, Section Three: Findings and Results). Moreover, with regard to the severity of problems there were frequent disagreements between researcher and informants: technical terminology, for example, was not considered as highly problematic by professional translators but was considered so by the researcher.

3.1.5.2. Native speakers of English

Researching the background knowledge of English native speakers was most helpful in detecting presupposed information which might prove a potential source of problems (see Baker 1992).

For example, Text 2: 85 cited above was one of those checked to find out what difference the presence or lack of background knowledge makes for the translator in decoding the ST and hence in decision making.. It was first checked with two native speakers of English and later with two non-native post-graduates, who were fairly competent in the English language but not necessarily fully knowledgeable about the culture. The method was through asking the participants questions such as:

1. Do you know who T. S. Eliot and Lord Russell are?
2. Do you know what the question “what’s it all about?” refers to?

In the example above no difficulty was experienced by the two native speakers in telling who T. S. Eliot or Lord Russell were, whereas the absence of such knowledge in the case of the non native speakers led to inability to decode the whole text and understand the joke intended by the expression “what’s it all about?” The only previously unknown piece of information to one of the native speakers was the fact that Russell was a Lord, which has no relevance to the translation of the text as such.

The nature of the texts meant that the subjects approached needed to enjoy a certain level of education and literacy. Also, the diversity of topics required good general knowledge on the part of the participants. In total, the people approached were twelve native speakers of English, some of whom were consulted more often than others. The informants were well known to the researcher - university staff members, friends, or

post graduate students. The response was always good, some actually commenting that they found the task enjoyable and the texts interesting.

Consultation of native speakers of English was conducted in two ways, questionnaires and interviews. Questionnaires were standard in the sense that all were given the same questions about the same text; each text, however, had its own set of questions related to the particular aspect/s it manifested. Instances which raised personal opinions or individual attitudes - such as what one might find amusing - were subjected to testing with more than one subject. A few texts were subsequently re-presented with a different set of questions, which were triggered from the initial survey. Some questionnaires were returned with written answers, and were answered in an informal interview, in which written notes were recorded.

In general the technique of investigating the texts through questioning native speakers proved to be useful and benefited the task of text translation in detecting some problems.

3.1.5.3. Native speakers of Arabic

Reader's perception rates high in translation assessment, as Nida and Taber (1969: 1) have confirmed:

Correctness must be determined by the extent to which the average reader for whom a translation is intended will be likely to understand it correctly.

Apart from the professional translators, native speakers of Arabic were used as second readers of the TT. The five contacted either spoke very little or no English. In order to detect the level of clarity, and its correlation with norms of an Arabic piece of writing,

the respondents were consulted about the TTs with no reference to the STs. This process of translation assessment in which the translated text is considered an independent text and assessed according to the standards of monolingual editing and writing Brunette (2000: 172) calls ‘fresh look procedure’, one among five translation quality assessment procedures she discusses. The opinions of native speakers of Arabic count in assessing how far the translator succeeded in overcoming the problem. When the TT reader, who has no access to the ST, spots the error, it means a transfer of an ST problem to a TT. The suggestions of Arabic native speakers were most useful in highlighting the opaqueness of presupposed signals in the target text. For example:

In the translation of Text 1: 80 cited above, the effort done to explicitate "elsewhere in the South" by translating it to *في مكان آخر من جنوب القارة* *elsewhere in the south of the continent* still did not help much the reader, for whom the question became "which continent"? instead of "which South"? An important semantic element carried implicitly in the source language required an explicit identification in the receptor language which was only detected after checking with the recipient of the TT.

3.1.6. Generating a taxonomy of problems

The categorization of problems in this study is based on language and discourse features. An initial attempt was also made to use these features as a device for discovering what text conventions typically occur in specific text-types, i.e. to relate certain translation problems to certain text types. My approach was based on using vocabulary items and prominent grammatical features as well as pragmatic and rhetorical devices to place the text in what Mason (1982: 23) calls the domain of the text, or in Crystal & Davy's (1969) terms, its ‘province’ (scientific, administrative,

political, religious, literary, journalistic, legal, etc).³⁰ Ultimately, as far as this study is concerned, it proved not to be viable because of the hybrid nature of many texts, problems tending to be more a question of certain language features than of text type. In support of this argument, for example, I find many of the translation problems - e.g. cultural, linguistic inadequacies in the ST (cited by Lie, 1995) - related to commercial texts also apply to other types of texts in my sample. Accordingly, though there is certain degree of correlation between text-type and language features, the latter was the choice.

It was, therefore, decided to study texts according to what seem to be problematic features regardless of the type of text to which they belong. However, for studies which do investigate translation problems in translating into and from Arabic according to text type, see, for example, Ibrahim (1988).

The following procedures were used to build up the initial taxonomy of text features resulting from the pre-study:

- The original problems as specified by the author in the book *Translation* were used as a starting-point to compose the taxonomy.
- Problems generated and listed during the text analysis and the text translation case-study itself were added. Many of these problems were specifically related to translating into Arabic.

After the categories were revised and modified to minimize overlap, the resulting list (see Table 4 below) was then checked against problems discussed in the literature and any obvious missing problems were added (cf. Chapter Two, Section Two).

³⁰ Cf. Chapter Two, Section One: Literature Review: Text type Oriented Techniques.

Below, Table 4 lists the categories of found problems as they appear in Section Two. It is given here because the presentation of Study One data is arranged according to the taxonomy.

Table (4): translation problems as found in the researcher case-study

Problems Related to Language Features	Vocabulary	Connotative meaning	
		Synonyms and Polysemy	
		Lexical voids	
		Arabization	
		Compounds	
		Collocations	
		Phrasal verbs	
		Fixed expressions	
		Technical terminology	
	Grammar	Articles as generic/specific indicators	
Cataphora/anaphora			
Word Order			
Passive forms			
Problems Related to Textual Features	Rhetorical and Stylistic Devices	Metaphor and simile	
		Repetition and Parallelism	
	Wordplay	Irony	
		Puns	
Cohesion	Cohesive Devices		
	Theme and rheme		
	Graphic Devices	Punctuation	
		Acronyms	
Emphasis markers			
Register and style			
Background knowledge			
Culture	Humour		
	Religion		
	Politics		
	Taboos		

This categorisation is similar to Rosenhouse's (1989) model of micro-level and macro-level mistranslations in students' translations, consisting of errors at small units within the text and errors at the level of the text as a whole respectively. It differs from Blight's (1992) list (cf. Table 1, Chapter Two, Section Two), and Gazala's (1995) (cf. Table 2, Chapter Two, Section Two), in that it consists of only two main categories: problems related to language features and problems related to textual features inclusive of sub-categories which correlate with one or both of the

lists mentioned above. Others, however, fall under different main/sub-categories; in the next section (Section Two) of this chapter an explanation is given as to why sub-categories are placed under certain category heads and not others. Thus ‘euphemism’, listed in Blight (1992) under the main category ‘rhetoric’, is referred to in this study in the sub-category, ‘culture’. In the following section (Translation Problems in Context), translation problems, as experienced in the case-study, will be discussed in detail.

3.2. Translation Problems in Context

3.2.0. Introduction

Methods and procedures used to generate the preliminary taxonomy of translation problems during the researcher case-study were discussed in Section One of this chapter. In this section, problems anticipated and those actually encountered and experienced by the researcher in the case-study translating from English into Arabic (with reference to the literature and definitions of the terms are given when necessary), will be discussed. The examples given here are representative of a larger list recorded during the case-study.

Inclusive of their sub categories, problems are grouped into two main sections: problems related to language features and problems related to text-level features (see Table 4 Section One, this chapter). This does not imply an exclusive separation between the two categories and the same goes for the sub-categories (especially those under “textual features”). On the contrary, the two are interrelated and the two-division categorization of translation problems here is predominantly for organizational purposes.

3.2.1. Problems related to language features

As opposed to the textual problems discussed later, problems related to language features include those of vocabulary and grammar inclusive of their sub-categories.

3.2.1.1. Vocabulary

Problematic vocabulary items are here taken to include both individual words and phrases. Included in the vocabulary problems related to single words discussed below, are words with connotative meaning, synonyms and polysemic items, lexical voids and Arabization. At the level of combination of words the following will be discussed: compounds, collocations, phrasal verbs and fixed expressions. Finally, problems related to the sub-category of medical terminology include both single items and a combination of vocabulary items.

3.2.1.1. Connotative meaning

A major problem related to individual vocabulary is when words carry a connotative meaning beside their referential meaning as in the case of the words “scene” and “atmosphere” in Text 1: 80 above (Section One this chapter), recited here for convenience:

One of the words which to an Englishman conjures up the quintessence of embarrassment is a ‘scene’. But in the Middle East and elsewhere in the South, ‘scenes’ between people explode continually in public and in private. They die down again just as quickly, leaving behind no ‘atmosphere’.

A preliminary translation of the two words “scene” and “atmosphere” - the main causes of the problem in the whole text because of the added meanings they carry, as the apostrophes would indicate - was not adequate because the Arabic dictionary equivalents supply too little connotative information. The connotations would be wholly absent without paraphrasing. The problem, however, is that paraphrasing “scene” as مشادات كلامية *heated arguments (noisy quarrels)*, تلسن *tiffs* or مشاهد عراك

outbursts to show the display of emotion and exploding anger the word connotes, and “atmosphere” as أجواء مشحونة/مشاعر غضب *congested atmospheres/angry (tense) feeling* to reflect the suggestion of an unpleasant mood, would not carry the power of the original.

3.2.1.2. Synonyms and polysemy

While with synonyms one meaning is given by two words or more, polysemy denotes a word that has more than one meaning (cf. Yule 1996: 118-123). Near or identical meaning between or among words in the ST can sometimes be problematic in translation, though in our case it was only an occasional obstacle. In Text 3: 93 (below), for example, the “tiredness” and “fatigue” are near synonyms as the difference between their meaning is slight. Both words have equivalents in Arabic that illustrate this slight difference.

Text 3: 93 Sleep is a necessary result of excessive fatigue.
Tiredness and fatigue are not by any means
synonymous. We may feel tired and sleepy
without being unduly fatigued, and we may be
excessively fatigued without being in any way
sleepy.

(C. J. Adcock: Fundamentals of psychology)

The problem is that while the three common equivalents for fatigue and tiredness in Arabic إرهاق/تعب and إعياء all refer to exertion, exhaustion, lack of strength and loss of energy with varying degrees (إرهاق and إعياء are slightly more intense), these are by all means exchangeable in Arabic, contrary to the English synonyms, none has to do with

sleep (“fatigue” in the text and “tiredness” in the Oxford Dictionary)³¹. The subtle difference in Arabic does not replicate the subtle difference in English.

As for polysemy, SL polysemous words usually have more than one equivalent in the TL. For example, the word “great” in the two texts below translates into different forms in Arabic: كبرى/كبيرة Text 4: 94 and عظمى Text 5: 95. The problem is that there are no fixed rules as to what exactly the word “great” translates into, though it roughly translates to عظمى or one of its variants (e.g. عظيمة) when it refers to status, and to كبرى or one of its variants (e.g. كبيرة) when it refers to size. In all cases, it has to be used with some sensitivity to allow for the slight difference between the variants.

In Text 4: 94 below, “great” translates to كبيرة because the reference here is to size, though كبرى, the intensified form, can also do.

Text 4: 94 In great cities men are like a lot of stones thrown
together in a bag;

(Somerset Maugham: A Writer’s Notebook)

In Text 5: 95 below, it translates to عظمى.

³¹ One of the meanings of ‘to tire’ in the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, (1995: 1254-55) is ‘to become in need to sleep or rest’.

Text 5: 95 If any real unity is to be ascribed to the Victorian era in England, it must be found in two governing conditions: first, there was no great war, and secondly, the whole period was marked by interest in religious questions.

(G. M. Trevelyan: Illustrated English Social History)

SL polysemy implies choosing from a set of TL variants, which is often a stylistic rather than a linguistic matter. The problem, however, is when at times this becomes a notion of convention. For example, “Good Friday”, in reference to the peace agreement for Northern Ireland is conventionally translated in Arabic to الجمعة العظيمة *great Friday*. “Good” is polysemous here maybe because within collocation it means holy, a potential problem for a trainee translator who is unfamiliar with the conventional equivalent.

3.2.1.3. Lexical voids

While most categories of vocabulary have been studied extensively, the category which Dagut (1981) refers to as voids in the context of lexical non-equivalence, has not. Text 6: 96 below exhibits two void words but from different perspectives: voids as just a chance fact that there is no Arabic word that matches the English word, e.g. “gazumping” and where the social/ real world concept does not exist in the target society, e.g. “couples” when it means partners.

Text 6: 96 It is high time the Government implemented its plan to stop gazumping. How many families have suffered as a result of this dishonest and frustrating practice? Our own editor has received hundreds of distressed letters from disappointed couples ...

(Property News)

In the translation we probably could translate “gazumping” to غش/سمسرة في الأسعار *cheating/brokage in prices* but the problem is that the exact concept, that of raising the price of properties after accepting an offer or reaching an agreement, is still not conveyed. With the word “couples”, since its nearest equivalent أزواج refers to two people who are married, we are faced with the problem of a lexical void because in English language the word couples can also refer to partners who share life but are not married. In Dagut's (1981) words, there is no single designator in the TL - Arabic in our case - that provides the equivalent encapsulation of the situational features of the term. The nearest linguistic term for partner in Arabic is شريك حياة *partner of one's life*. شريك حياة in Arabic is, in fact, another word for conventional marriage. Of course, as explained above, the meaning of “partner”, can be periphrastically³² rendered into Arabic in a string of phrases but there is no single Arabic word which conveys the semantic content of the English word “couples” which is becoming more and more synonymous with “partners”, a term that can also designate same-sex married couples. For similar examples of ‘voids’ where much is left unsaid when translated, resulting in translation loss, see Nida and Taber (1969: 5).

³² See Miremadi (1992: 139) for possible strategies to handle non-equivalence in the TL.

3.2.1.4. Arabization

Arabization is the process of converting a new foreign word into an equivalent that is formed from Arabic roots. Because of the link between Arabization and nationhood, ‘Arabhood’ in other words, decisions as to whether or not to Arabize are likely to be taken for ideological reasons not only consideration regarding which form is more current. Hence the problem is whether or not to Arabize before merely finding a problem or coining an equivalent.³³

Anyway, Arabization as a translation problem is a TL production and not a SL problem. In the examples presented in Text 7: 97 and Text 8: 98 below, many translators would not contemplate even bothering to transfer “films”, “hotel” and “radio” into their Arabic equivalents, as all three words are widely used not only in regional dialects but also in print.

Text 7: 97 In south India, the Madras studios, which turn
out films in a dozen languages, have been
involved since independence in politics.

(Trevor Fishlock: India File).

In Text 7: 97 above, while some would advocate retaining the original word “films” in its Arabic form of the plural ‘aflam’ أفلام³⁴, others would propose the use of the Arabic equivalent of the compound word أشرطة خيالة.

While the problem in Text 7: 97 is not knowing whether to choose the borrowed or the Arabized version, Text 8: 98 raises a conflict, as the translator is caught between

³³ For examples relevant to Arabic in terms of language and nationalism, see Fishman (1973).

³⁴ The presence of an Arabic plural implies that what was once a foreign import has now become Arabic. Since these things often do not stay fixed, it would be much harder to say it is non-Arabic.

the need to be consistent (to Arabize hotel to فندق and radio to مذياع), and the pressure of wanting to give a normal form that would retain the English word radio, an every day expression, with all the intimacy it conjures up in the text.

Text 8: 98 (The author is stuck in a remote hotel in E. Africa). I am not by nature a restless or volatile person, forever demanding diversion, yet I do not think I was ever so desperate in my life: no books, no radio, no argument, no pictures, no news. I have a temperament ill-adjusted to contemplation. Nobody turned up. Until, on the fourth day, somebody did.

(James Cameron: Point of Departure)

When a once-foreign word has been widely accepted, it is the researcher's view that using an Arabizing equivalent would raise the register, i.e. to substitute the word "radio" راديو as used in the context, where the person is expressing an emphatic internal feeling, with جهاز إذاعة مسموعة or مذياع would result in elevating the register and consequently affecting the meaning.

To test the tendency among translators to adopt Arabization, however, the above text was sent to a professional translator for translation. The findings were inconsistent: radio was translated to مذياع but "hotel" was transliterated to هوتيل instead of translating it to فندق, in other words, Arabization is often a matter of individual preference and intuition.

3.2.1.5. Compounds

Compounds are two words combined together to give one meaning; they can be merged into one word, separated by a hyphen, or remain separated. One of the problems related to the translation of compounds arises from the fact they are not always composed so transparently that syntactic-semantic relations between their components can be interpreted or predicted from rules (Jakobsen 1992: 129). The reason that compounds are seen in the present research as a separate translation area between English and Arabic is because compound formation is not parallel in the two languages. Besides, compounds are more extensively used in English than in Arabic.

While some compounds such as “footprint”, “sound-absorbing”, “oil resistance”, “far-reaching” etc. were translated straightforwardly in the case-study, others such as those that appear in the form of a string when the structure becomes complex, such as “two-volume, leather-bound early eighteenth-century collection of French poetry” and a “damp, slack, small-boned hand” did yield difficulty, as in both cases the structure needed to be reformulated.

To translate English compounds into Arabic, genitive forms and paraphrasing may be used as in the following two examples from my versions: “free-market traders”, تجار السوق الحرة in Text 9: 100 below and “drought-affected regions”, المناطق المتضررة بالجفاف, *areas harmed by drought* in the same text below, yet the problem of how to work out a phrasal solution of one’s own in unprecedented instances still persists.

Text 9: 100 Farmers in Ethiopia are to be given greater freedom to sell any additional surplus to the highest bidder, and the government plans to establish a system of licensed free-market traders in order to move crops from the areas of surplus to drought-affected regions more easily.

(The Farmer's Gazette)

However, the problem in translating the set of compound words italicized in Text 10: 100 below lies in how to render them as compressed as they are in the ST.

Text 10: 100 We knew him vaguely. He was usually invited to our embassy parties. He was, somehow, on the permanent *guest list*. But he was seldom a guest. I had seen him once, but only long enough to shake his hand – a damp, slack, *small-boned* hand. The only other thing that I could remember was that he had been wearing *evening-dress* of an *old-fashioned* kind. He looked uncomfortable in this stiff and slightly *ill-fitting* suit, and it also looked forty years out of date.

(Paul Theroux: The London Embassy)

As it proved in the multi-subject study (cf. Chapter Four, Section Two), all the compound words in Text 10: 100 above are clear in the ST but some are hard to handle in the translation. In the case of “guest list”, it translates literally in isolation, as a genitive construction could give a near equivalent, i.e. قائمة المدعوين but the translation becomes awkward when translated together with “permanent” دائمة. In the case of “small-boned hand”, the problem is that neither ضعيفة *weak* nor ضئيلة *tiny*, the

nearest equivalents, would be adequate and paraphrasing does not help. With “evening-dress of an old-fashioned kind” paraphrasing can render the compounds, i.e. ملابس سهرة من الطراز القديم, while in the case of “ill-fitting suit” the nearest translation is بذلة غير مناسبة *not suitable suit*.

3.2.1.6. Collocations

Collocations are usually two or more words assembled together to give a brief expression. The problem of translating collocations arises because they are bound to convention, and, as highlighted by Heliel (1997: 286) that they are language specific or culture-bound.³⁵

During the case-study most of the familiar collocations, which have known conventional equivalents such as ‘falling in love’, ‘turning point’, ‘pass sentence’, ‘come to conclusion’, ‘convey information’, ‘raise a point’, ‘raise emotion’, posed no problem. Others formed of the verb ‘make’ and a noun, varied in difficulty. While ‘make an attempt’ and ‘make complaint’ translate straightforwardly to يقوم بمحاولة and يقدم شكوى respectively, ‘make fun of’ was problematic, as I know its meaning in English (subject to ridicule) is more than that given in the dictionary, i.e. يهزأ به (Almawrid) or يسخر من (Golden Al-wafi Translator). The same applies to collocations formed using adjectives such as low/high with nouns such as ‘low results’/ ‘low words’/ ‘low opinion’, and ‘high speed’/ ‘high places’/ ‘high degree’. While ‘high speed’, for example, translates straightforwardly to سرعة فائقة, the fact that ‘high places’ referred to prestigious social settings needed to be overcome. With other cases the presence of a phrasal verb ‘give off’ meaning to emanate did make the problem

³⁵ For a comparison between collocations in English and Arabic, see Abu-Saydeh (1995: 19).

more difficult. For example, while ‘give impressions’ and ‘expressions given’ in Text 11: 102 below were translated with no difficulty, ‘give an expression off’ and ‘expressions given off’ proved to be problematic because none of the meanings given for emanate in the dictionary (e.g. Alkawrid ينبعث، ينبثق، يطلق) would make sense in Arabic with “impression” انطباع or “expression” تعبير.

Text 11: 102 The expressiveness of the individual, and therefore his capacity to give impressions, appears to involve two radically different kinds of sign activity: the expression that he gives and the expression that he gives off. The first involves verbal symbols which he uses solely to convey information ... The second involves a wide range of action that others can treat as symptomatic of the actor. As we shall see, this distinction has only an initial validity. The individual does of course intentionally convey misinformation by means of both of these types of communication, the first involving deceit, the second feigning. Of the two types of communication-expressions given and expressions given off-this report will be primarily concerned with the latter.

(Erving Goffman: The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life)

Some collocations may be so fixed as to become idioms. An example of this kind of collocation that proved problematic is ‘set his heart’ in Text 12: 103 below.

Text 12: 103 A man with average, or less than average,
intelligence may set his heart on being a doctor,
or girl with little more than average looks and
no acting ability may aspire to Hollywood
stardom. The results can easily be disastrous.

(C. J. Adcock: Fundamentals of Psychology)

يتوق *eager* could be a plausible translation for “set his heart” but يتوق lacks the determination expressed by the ST collocation. The problem of loss in the translation is inevitable in respect of such collocations.

3.2.1.7. Phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs are composed of a verb and a preposition. Newmark (1993: 30) describes phrasal verbs as less formal but sometimes neutral, less pompous and more forceful, than their non-phrasal equivalents.

The difficulty of translating phrasal verbs lies in:

- The intricate network of relations that a phrasal verb forms with other words and collocates.
- Idiomatic use: it may also have more than one idiomatic or figurative use.

For example, the phrasal verb “picked up” in Text 13: 104

**Text 13: 104 Canning of fruit and vegetables: fruit
lacquered cans**

Store empty cans upside down in a dry place
to prevent rusting and away from strong
smells, ... which may be picked up by the
lacquer and subsequently taint the fruit.

(Marguerite Patten: 500 Recipes: Jams,
Pickles, Chutneys)

requires a different translation from that in Text 2: 84 above "only the other evening I
picked up Bertrand Russell and I said to him: Well, Lord Russell, what's it all about? -
and, do you know, he couldn't tell me".

In the case-study, 'picked up' in Text 13: 104 above was translated without hesitation
to يلتقط. With Text 2: 84, however, some effort was needed to select the right
equivalent from the available options: اصطحب/أخذ/أقلّ, (see Main Study, Chapter Four,
Section Two: Results and Findings where this phrasal verb caused real problems for
subjects).

3.2.1.8. Fixed expressions

Within the category of fixed expressions, Duff (1995: 717-18) lists standard or
formulaic expressions such as 'we wish to extend our thanks to ... ', or 'in the author's
opinion', which may be fixed by tradition or determined by habit or long usage,
rhetorical or empty phrases, clichés, idioms and dead metaphors and routine
sentences. Below, fixed expressions will be discussed in general as space does not
allow us to investigate each category in detail.

From the numerous examples of fixed expressions in the source material in the case-study, some are discussed below. In some cases, such as the idiomatic expression “don’t play with fire”, as used in Text 14: 105 below, Arabic does have a matching expression that has the same formula and expresses the same meaning.

Text 14: 105 The latest Fire Test Certification tests on Pilkington Glass demonstrate yet again its ability to hold back flames and smoke for at least 60 minutes. Don’t play with fire. Specify Pilkington Polished Wired Glass, and you’ll be on the safe side.

(Advertisement for Pilkington Glass)

However, the problem remains that the idiomatic expression used here in Arabic لا تلعب بالنار bears a threatening tone which would not be a sensible persuasive device in an advertisement, nor would it serve the same purpose with the same force in such a text type in Arabic.

The problem with the idiom “strike while the iron is hot” used in Text 15: 105, below, is that its equivalent in Arabic نضرب الحديد وهو حامى is more colloquial than would be appropriate in such a text.

Text 15: 105 The teacher can suggest the best distribution of time for adequate training. Should learning periods be long? Should we ‘strike while the iron is hot,’ or should we do a little at a time and avoid fatigue?

(C. J. Adcock: Fundamentals of Psychology)

One solution would be to spell the meaning out in more informative words.

As for proverbs, many do have equivalents in Arabic, and matching lists in this respect are available as a source reference. Some do give the same meaning as in the ST when translated literally, others, however, have to be paraphrased, as the examples below illustrate.

Text 16: 106 You can lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink.

(Popular saying)

While the popular saying in Text 16: 106 above translates literally, i.e.: تستطيع أن تقود الجواد إلى الماء، ولكنك لا تستطيع أن تجبره على الشرب, in Text 17: 106 below the message addressed by the idiomatic expression has to be spelled out.

Text 17: 106 THE CUP - BY THE SKIN OF THEIR TEETH!

Coventry clinch it: Coventry City 3 Tottenham Hotspur 2

'By the skin of their teeth' translates unidiomatically as فاز فريق كوفينترى بفارق بسيط *Coventry won the cup narrowly* but there is no similar idiom in Arabic with the common elements of 'cup', 'teeth'.

What emerges from dealing with fixed expressions in general is the fact that some of these idioms/expressions do have equivalents in Arabic, the thrust of some can be expressed unidiomatically, some translate literally, but many are untranslatable. The fact that Arabic equivalents tend to differ slightly from English means that it is going to be hard to capture exactly the right tone, semantics, etc.

3.2.1.9. Technical terminology

In the case-study, the burden of translating compounds became heavier when they bore technical information and were employed to serve the overall structure of the text as in Text 18: 107.

Text 18: 107 The site of the factory is low-lying with a high water table, and lies below the high-tide level of the Thames. The sub-soil is of poor load-bearing capacity with an underlying stratum of peat of varying thickness.

(Architectural Design)

While in English the meaning of the compounds in Text 18: 107 above can be expressed otherwise, compounds are more usable in this type of text. As an illustration, “low-lying” could be expressed as “lying at a low altitude”; “high-tide” becomes ‘the highest level the water reaches when the tide comes in’, but this would result in the text becoming rather long-winded and clumsy. When translating this type of text into Arabic a special skill is required.

In translating a technical text such as Text 18: 107 above, the intended readership plays an essential role in the choice of terms and the general composition of the text. For example, in the choice of vocabulary in the text ‘capacity’, ‘underlying stratum’ and all of the compounds, inform us that this text is targeted to a particular audience, to people who know about building construction: builders, civil engineers, architects.

Immediately after approaching this text for translation in the case-study, problems arose and external help was sought. Problems manifested themselves in the technical terminology mainly in the form of compounds. The professional translator consulted

provided an impressive translation of the text and, interestingly, the feedback included no complaint of difficulty, which indicates that translator experience is a key factor in this area - thus justifying its inclusion as a variable for the target population in the multi-subject study (Chapter Four).

3.2.1.2. Grammar

The fact that English and Arabic do not have formally corresponding systems and they do not belong to the same genetic root entail translation shifts at almost all grammatical levels.³⁶ But this does not mean that the grammatical shift in translating from English into Arabic always poses intractable problems. Thus, in general, problems of translation related to grammar are seen by some as not particularly difficult to solve:

Unless it is exceedingly complex, grammar is not usually a major problem in translation (Newmark 1993: 31).

A grammatical void, however, may be an exception here. Jakobson (1959: 235) emphasizes that:

It is more difficult to remain faithful to the original when we translate into a language provided with a certain grammatical category from a language devoid of such a category.³⁷

Although it is a prime aim of this study to consider all problems including low ranking ones, individual elements of grammar such as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, preposition etc. and those of the simple sentence such as subject, verb, complement etc, are not included in the discussion below. The reason is that none of these was a

³⁶ About translation shift see Catford (1965: 73-82).

³⁷ See also Jakobson's discussion on grammatical gender, (ibid. 237-238).

concern while carrying out the case-study and no real problems were recorded or difficulties experienced.³⁸

Here I only discuss categories that fall squarely under the rubric of *grammar* and were problematic in the case-study: articles as generic/specific indicators, anaphora/cataphora, ST word order and passive forms.

3.2.1.1. Articles as generic/specific indicators

As the concepts of generic/specific in English and Arabic are not always expressed in the same way, definite or indefinite articles as generic/specific indicators were occasionally problematic to translate from English into Arabic, as the example below shows.

Text 19: 109 Today, when a girl says she is going to be independent, it means she is going to devote her attentions almost exclusively to men; though not necessarily to ‘a man’.

(D. H. Lawrence: The Princess and Other Stories)

In Text 19: 109 above the generic use of “men” translates as الرجال *the men*; “a girl” and “a man”, on the other hand would translate differently. While the generic meaning expressed in “a girl” is expressed by the use of a definite article in the translation when it becomes الفتاة/البنات *the girl*, the problem with “a man” is that it refers to ‘a certain man’, and the translation has to express this concept. The solution

³⁸ However, for a detailed study of problems related to basic grammatical elements and an account of basic errors beginner students make, see Gazala (1995: 32-82 chapter Grammatical Problems), or consult the analysis of data gathered from subjects in the main study, (Chapter Four, Section Two).

would probably be to retain the indefinite form in Arabic but insert identifiers such as *ما* or *بعينه*; i.e. *رجل ما/رجل بعينه*. Both determiners specify ‘one particular man’, though *بعينه*, expresses certainty too.

3.2.1.2. Anaphora/cataphora

One form of grammatical marker used in English, which is different in Arabic, is anaphora/cataphora. Yule (1996: 131) defines anaphora use as ‘subsequent reference to an already introduced entity’. What is problematic in translation, however is cataphora (referring forward to succeeding elements: Halliday and Hassan, 1976: 56), which is used in English to put a certain emphasis on particular details. The dilemma in translating from English into Arabic is whether to retain the structure or alter it. Hatim (1997: 95) suggests a half-way solution between ‘complete preservation’ and ‘radical transformation’. With Text 20: 110 below the strategy of a half way solution did work.

Text 20: 110 Despite his gratitude for his friendly reception there, Freud did not go away with a very favourable impression of America. Such prejudices were very apt to last with him, and this one never entirely disappeared; it was years before close contact with Americans visiting Vienna even softened it.

(Ernest Jones: Life and work of Sigmund Freud).

To test whether cataphoric reference is a problem that has to be tackled in translating Text 20: 110 into Arabic, it was sent to a professional translator for translation who was not provided with a suggested translation. The Arabic version proposed by the professional translator still starts with the same opening as in the ST but the name was

رغم امتنان فرويد العميق بالحفاوة التي استقبل بها في: introduced earlier than in the English text: *Despite Freud's gratitude for the friendly reception (welcoming) by which he was received in America, he ...* .

3.2.1.3. Word order

Duff (1989: 66) explains how even trained translators can find themselves trapped by the wording of the original text, in that 'they follow the line of words rather than the line of thought'. In the present study, the problem of the ST word order was felt when after many attempts of translation, the TT still betrays the vestigial influence of the ST word order.

Among the specific forms of word order that proved problematic in the case-study is subject-complement inversion of the type exemplified in Text 21: 111 below.

Text 21: 111 So colossal is human egotism that people who have
met an author are constantly on the look-out for
portraits of themselves in his work.

(Somerset Maugham: A Writer's Notebook)

Meaning expressed through the reversal of the order of the grammatical elements in Text 21: 111 above and Text 22: 111 below, is hard to render as fluently as in the ST.

Text 22: 111 Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.

(William Shakespeare: King Henry V)

The problem with the example in Text 23: 112 below is to find a missing connector that does not appear on the surface in the ST.

Text 23: 112 Most films in India have fight scenes to enable the hero to demonstrate his masculinity. Battered and bloody, he wins through.

(Trevor Fishlock: India File)

In the translation, the link between the clause “battered and bloody” and the main sentence “he wins through” has to be made clear by the use of بالرغم although.

3.2.1.4. Passive forms

Passive forms are widely used in English, while in Arabic their use is highly restricted.³⁹

Though, in translating scientific English into Arabic, there is more tolerance of the use of passive forms when translated into Arabic. However, two problems related to the translation of passive forms emerged during the case-study, the first being an inconsistency when certain passive formulae that are characteristic of English translate to similar passive formulae, in similar contexts in Arabic, while others translate to active and occasionally an active form becomes passive in the TT. Text 24: 113 below illustrates this equation.

³⁹ For a thorough investigation of the problems raised by translating passive forms from English into Arabic and the alternatives available for the translator, see Khafaji (1996). For suggestions on strategies in how to handle passivity in Arabic, see Hatim (1997: 114-115). Also see Rosenhouse (1988).

Text 24: 113 The Society of Authors: you are invited to the society's AGM, which will be followed by an 'Any Questions' discussion. Please complete and return the slip below. In order to save costs, applications will NOT be acknowledged.

(The Society of Authors newsletter)

"You are invited to the society's AGM" translates to the same formula أنتم مدعوون إلى الاجتماع السنوي للجمعية. However, "which will be followed by an 'Any Questions' discussion" would normally translate to سوف تلي الاجتماع مناقشة يفسح فيها المجال للأسئلة or والذي سيعقبه مناقشة يفسح فيها المجال للأسئلة. Both translations include active and passive. They roughly translate back to *discussion will follow the meeting in which a chance will be given for questions.*

The second problem is the difference in transitivity between English and Arabic. This problem is illustrated by Text 25: 113 below, in which the English verb 'sail' can be both transitive and intransitive, in Arabic it can only be intransitive.

Text 25: 113 To a large extent, Viking ships were sailed within sight of land, but when ships crossed the seas to Iceland or to America, some form of navigational aid must have been used.

(David M. Wilson: The Vikings)

The equivalent to 'sail' in Arabic يبحر is intransitive; "Viking ships were sailed" would have to become أبحرت سفن الفايكن *the Viking ships sailed* where the verb acts as intransitive, or أبحر الفايكن بسفنهم *the Vikings sailed with their ships* where the verb in the

latter translation is compromised for transitivity by the use of the preposition *إلى*, though the sentence would still be in the active form.

3.2.2. Problems related to textual features

The term 'textual features' is used here mainly to designate those properties which give the text its rhetorical and stylistic devices, and cohesion (its sequence and continuity). Other elements which interfere and affect textuality⁴⁰ are things such as background knowledge, register and style and culture, all of which will be discussed below using examples from the case-study (Table 4).

3.2.2.1. Rhetorical and stylistic devices

Rhetoric can generally be defined as the author's use of a variety of means in order to inform, to achieve imaginative consent, and to engage the interests and, guide the emotional responses of the readers to whom the text is addressed (Abrams 1988: 160).

Style, on the other hand, is defined by Abrams (1988: 181) as:

The manner of linguistic expression in prose or verse - it is how speakers or writers say whatever it is that they say.

For Abrams (ibid. 159) style sometimes involves extensive classification and analyses of figures of speech⁴¹.

There is no way to address all the rhetorical and stylistic devices that cause problems in translating from English to Arabic in this study. Those discussed below and

⁴⁰ For an account of the components of text, see Lyons (1995: 262-264).

⁴¹ Figurative language is a departure from what speakers of a particular language apprehend to be standard meaning of words, or standard order of words, in order to achieve some special meaning or effect, (Abrams 1988: 64).

illustrated by examples are the most prominent that occurred in the texts under investigation: metaphor and simile, repetition and parallelism and wordplay.

3.2.2.1. Metaphor and simile

The following quotation from Abrams (1988: 64-65) defines both ‘metaphor’ and ‘simile’:

While in metaphor, a word or expression which in literal usage denotes one kind of thing or action is applied to a distinctly different kind of thing or action without asserting a comparison, in a simile, a comparison between two distinctly different things is indicated by the word “like” or “as”.

By virtue of their connotative nature, metaphors are difficult to translate. This arises from the fact that the translation of metaphor is often culturally specific,⁴² (Snell-Hornby, 1988: 57). When translating texts that include metaphors in the case-study the difficulty lies in the search for the best strategy to translate metaphors, i.e. whether they will be translated metaphorically by looking for an equivalent in the TL when one exists, or replacing it by non-figurative language, which sometimes entails using an explicative technique.

When a literal translation of metaphor does not sound right as in Text 26: 117 below, the problem lies in the hesitation as to whether or not an equivalent metaphor (e.g. for “rub off the sharp angles”) exists in the TL or whether it should be translated non-metaphorically.

⁴² For different definitions of metaphor, see Broeck (1981: 74). Some metaphorical uses of lexical items, which are related to culture, will be discussed under the section ‘Culture’ below.

Text 26: 116 Former Prime Minister Sir Anthony Eden's main metaphor groups are sensual and related to smoothing, rubbing, stroking and eating. Molotov he said 'did what he could to rub off some of the sharp angles', but at the end of the conference they had to admit that there were matters 'that cannot be ironed out between us'.

(Kenneth Hudson: The Language of Modern Politics)

The decision in this particular case was to transfer the meaning expressed in the ST using the expression *يلطف الأجواء* *ease the atmosphere*. However, the problem remains in how to keep the connection in the original between 'rub' in the metaphor and 'sensuality'.

Text 27: 116 shows that a solution was only reached after a second thought. The concept of leadership expressed by the metaphor "get into the driving seat" sounded at first as if it could be expressed by the same metaphor in the TT.

Text 27: 117 'Bernard,' I said firmly, 'this government governs. It does not just preside like our predecessors did. When a nation's been going downhill you need someone to get into the driving seat and put his foot on the accelerator.' 'I think, perhaps, you mean the brake, Minister,' said Bernard.

(Jonathan Lynn and Anthony Jay: Yes, Minister)

Later a slight change seemed to be necessary: "get into the driving seat" becomes *يجلس خلف مقود القيادة* *sit behind the steering wheel*, as people normally say in Arabic.

Possibly less problematic is the use of simile. In translating similes into Arabic there is no problem with the mechanism in expressing the simile itself, but potentially with the elements involved in the simile itself. For example, in Text 28: 117 below, the problem related to the simile is one of knowledge of the climatic nature of the geographical place Glasgow rather than rhetorical.

Text 28: 117 Lima lies in the tropics, but the morning
 into which we stepped was as bleakly
 untropical as a Glasgow dawn.

(George Woodcock: Incas and Other Men)

For an audience unfamiliar with a Glasgow dawn, it is hard to visualize the scene.

3.2.2.2. Repetition/ parallelism

Repetition alludes to the repetition of lexical items, while parallelism is the repetition of grammatical or discourse structures. Like English, Arabic does employ the two stylistic devices for rhetorical purposes, but uses them more extensively (see Dickens et al. 2002: 59-63). The major problem arising in translating from English into Arabic is that the two languages employ the technique differently. For example, although Arabic uses repetition more extensively than English does⁴³, transferring repetition as used in Text 29: 118 below into Arabic without alterations would be excessive, i.e. variation would be preferable.

⁴³ See Dickens and Watson (1999: 541-53).

The trouble with tea is that originally it was quite a good drink. So a group of the most eminent British scientists put their heads together, and made complicated biological experiments to find a way of spoiling it ...

There are some occasions when you must not refuse a cup of tea, otherwise you are judged an exotic and barbarous bird without any hope of ever being able to take your place in civilised society.

If you are invited to an English home, at five o'clock in the morning you get a cup of tea. Then you have tea for breakfast; then you have tea at eleven o'clock in the morning; then after lunch; then you have tea for tea; then after supper; and again at eleven o'clock at night.

You must not refuse any additional cups of tea under the following circumstances: if it is hot; if it is cold; if you are tired; if anybody thinks that you might be tired; if you are nervous; if you are gay; if you feel like it; if you do not feel like it; if you have had no tea for some time; if you have just had a cup.

(George Mikes: How to be an Alien)

Repetition here serves the purpose of amusement; poking fun at the English, in other words, hence it is a humorous device (cf. Humour below). At the lexical level, the word tea is repeated ten times, then it is used consecutively five times and 'you' is used fifteen times. As for grammatical structures, the noun phrase 'you have tea ...' is repeated three times, while the prepositional phrase itself is repeated three times and the 'if' clause is repeated nine times.

Much of what is said in this text cannot be taken literally although the facts associated with 'tea' as a cultural aspect in the society are true or at least were true at the time this text was written in the 1950s. The ST is meant to be amusing, with a tone of exaggeration that is deliberately used to serve the purpose. The problem in the translation is that, if the ST repetition is replicated, the tendency to take the TT more seriously is high because repetition in Arabic carries the value of powerful argument rather than humour.

In Text 30: 119 below, repetition and parallelism are used for the rhetorical purpose of irony.

Text 30: 119 Winston Churchill was one of the few people to get the better of the playwright, George Bernard Shaw. Shaw invited Churchill to the first night of his play, enclosing two tickets: 'One for yourself and one for a friend-if you have one'. Churchill wrote back saying he couldn't make it, but asking if he could have tickets 'for the second night- if there is one'.

(Quoted in an advertisement for Epson computers)

The main concern when translating Text 30: 119 was whether the ritual of insult to serve a humorous purpose in the ST would be properly conveyed in the TT (cf. Humour below). When translating into Arabic, the problem lay in maintaining the rhetorical effect of the repetition of the referent 'one', while 'one' has to be substituted each time to the item to which it refers. The substitution of 'one' for 'friend' in the first utterance and for 'night' in the second gives a triple parallelism in the English text which plays a key part in the rhetoric here as a whole. In Arabic,

parallelism can only be partially preserved. 'One' for 'friend' has to be translated into 'friend' صديق, with the power of rhetoric lying in the repetition of the word 'friend' within the same utterance and not in the fact that 'one' also reflects ticket and foreshadows 'night'. 'One' in the other utterance has to be translated into another show or performance عرض. The structural parallelism between the first utterance and the second utterance is also still only partially maintained by the use of the conditional 'if' in both utterances. However, parallelism of meaning is preserved.

3.2.2.3. Wordplay

Playing on words is the witty exploitation of certain semantic or structural features of the language to twist meaning for the purpose of mockery, joking, jousting, persiflage, chitchatting etc. Playing on words is acknowledged as one of the most difficult rhetorical devices to translate. The source of such difficulty is attributed to certain features related to word-play, as explained by Delabastita (1994: 223):

The root cause of these special real or alleged, theoretical or practical difficulties lies in the fact that the semantic and pragmatic effects of source-text wordplay find their origin in particular structural characteristics of the source language for which the target language more often than not fails to produce a counterpart, such as the existence of certain homophones, near-homophones, polysemic clusters, idioms, or grammatical rules.

In translation, the difficulty of the problem lies in presence or absence of the linguistic means to translate wordplay in the TL. While Text 31: 121 below, for example, translates well in Arabic by employing the same kind of word play, the case with Text 32: 121 is different.

Text 31: 121 In 1960 an anecdote in the form of an imaginary dialogue circulated in the satellite countries of the East:

‘Tell me, comrade, what is capitalism?’

‘The exploitation of man by man’

‘And what is communism?’

‘The reverse.’

(Arthur Koestler)

The implication that communism is the same, or at least as flawed as capitalism is expressed by means of ‘the reversal’, which involves bringing the second ‘man’ backward and moving the first ‘man’ forward to end up with the same equation, i.e. “the exploitation of man by man” can be rendered in the same way in the translation playing on the grammatical/semantic relationship between the individual parts of the exchange in the dialogue: الرأسمالية هي استغلال الرجل لأخيه الرجل والشيوعية هي العكس, which is in back translation: *capitalist is the exploitation of man to his brother man, and communism is the reverse*. More culturally bound and therefore problematic with reference to the proverb ‘curiosity killed the cat in Text 32: 121.

Text 32: 121 A friend was upset at having to get rid of his cat.
Dorothy Parker suggested: ‘Have you tried
curiosity?’

In the translation, the problem was that if Text 32: 121 were translated literally, it would not make sense because the proverb does not exist in Arabic. One way to tackle this problem might be to use a marginal note calling the reader’s attention to explain the proverb (for more on this strategy, see Nida and Taber 1969: 5).

Two other types of word play that proved problematic in the case-study, which will be discussed below are irony and puns.

3.2.2.4. Irony

Irony can be distinguished from other form of wordplay, which in other cases are the product of a linguistic structure and are a matter of different meanings (as shown in Text 31: 121), while irony has to do with interpretations, and cannot easily identified merely by a set of linguistic or stylistic features but is dependent on context. Implicitness is what gives ironic utterances a humorous effect. From our collection of texts, Text 30: 119 is an example of the comic pleasure evoked by irony (where both Shaw and Churchill used irony in writing to each other).

Traditionally irony has been defined as saying one thing and meaning another⁴⁴. For example, the word ‘authentic’ in Text 33: 122, though it is not explicitly stated, from a pragmatic point of view, is intended to mean ‘inauthentic’, since the authentic ‘jar’ that was used in the miracle was one that is unlikely to be among them here.

Text 33: 122 We went to Cana of Galilee, where a little girl was offering wine jars for sale. They were the authentic ones used in the miracle. If they were too big she had a smaller size indoors; yes, the small ones were authentic too.

(Evelyn Waugh: Labels)

⁴⁴ Critics generally agree that such a definition of irony is no longer comprehensive or accurate. One reason stated by Mateo (1995: 172) is the fact of the multifarious and complex techniques that writers use to create irony’. Also, ironical utterances only sometimes, but not always, imply the opposite of what they literally say (see Sperber and Wilson 1981: 296).

To test whether the irony in Text 33: 122 would be perceived by the TL audience as it would be by that of the ST in the SL, two translations of the text were presented to native speakers of Arabic. The first was a mere transfer of the ST and the second was more explicative, particularly with regard to the ironic part, i.e. “the authentic ones used in the miracle” became:

45 كانت الجرار أصلية هي نفسها التي استعملها المسيح عليه السلام في سقاية المارة *the jars were authentic, the same ones the Lord Christ (peace be upon him)*⁴⁶ used to give drink to the passers by. According to the informants, domestication was used in the second translation worked well in rendering the irony intended contrary to the first translation which failed in getting the message across. For the translator, the problem remains in realizing what could remain vague in the translation and how to deal with it.

3.2.2.5. Puns

Another type of wordplay which is classified as highly difficult to translate, indeed and almost untranslatable, is the pun. Abrams (1988: 151) defines a pun as:

A play on words that are either identical in sound; homonyms or very similar in sound, but are sharply diverse in meaning (ibid.).

The problem with wordplay in general including puns, as Delabastita (1994: 223) puts it, is:

⁴⁵ سقاية is offering water to drink for the pilgrims in Mecca and also used in the context of the miracle of the Christ.

⁴⁶ 'Peace be upon him' is said whenever a prophet's name is mentioned, particularly prophet Muhammad. It is considered distasteful to mention a prophet without saying it.

how to divorce meaning, intention, function, effect, communicative value from verbal formulation when the former seems to be the exclusive effect of the latter?

The following example of a pun, besides illustrating the above definition, shows how difficult it is to translate puns.

Text 34: 124 I'M BACKING BRITAIN – but backing
Britain into what?

(A sticker at the back of a car)

In Text 34: 124 above, the joke lies in the double meaning of the word backing; translating the text into Arabic, where the meaning of the word “backing” in the two instances is expressed by two different unrelated words will not transfer the message in the original. However, the question remains: when will we need to translate a phrase like this anyway? Probably the answer to this query would be very rarely, and this accords with the fact that omission is commonly resorted to in translating puns (see Shurafa 1986).

3.2.2.2. Cohesion

Cohesion is the linkage of parts of the text by means of discoursal devices and intersentential connectives. In this category of problems related to textual features I am concerned with the differentiator presented by translating cohesive devices, theme and rheme and graphic devices.

3.2.2.1. Cohesive devices

Cohesive devices are tools which confer upon a text its logical relations and continuity. Markers of cohesion are reference markers, substitution, ellipsis and conjunctions amongst others (Brown 1983).

The reason that cohesive devices are dealt with here and not under ‘Grammar’ or ‘Vocabulary’ is due to the fact that some cohesive devices such as reference markers, substitution and ellipsis may be seen as grammatical, cohesive patterns, ‘general nouns’, reiteration, and others are lexical; while conjunction is on the borderline of the two (Halliday 1978: 6). Moreover, the translation problems they raise are components more relevant to the conceptual continuity of the text than of grammar or structure.

One problem related to the translation of cohesive devices in general is when they are implied but absent, or perhaps not explicit in a text when its author is actually expressing concession, reservation, consequence (usually achieved by using words like ‘however’, ‘but’ etc.) Lang (1995: 155). This is precisely what the researcher encountered in Text: 23: 112 above ‘... battered and bloody, he wins through’. A further problem, Lang adds, is that different languages have different methods of articulating cohesion. Translating into Arabic, the problem is less one of locating a cohesive device that matches linguistically, but rather the right one for the context.

Apart from ellipsis however, cohesive devices that are related to organizational features used in the construction of the text, known as organizational functions, did not pose any real problem in the case-study. Among these are references (e.g. articles, personal references of pronouns and possessives, demonstratives, substitution nominal

one/s and the verbal do), conjunctions (e.g. ‘and’, ‘yet’, ‘so’ and ‘then’) and continuatives (e.g. ‘now’, ‘of course’, ‘well’, ‘anyway’, ‘surely’ and ‘after all’).

Halliday (1978: 88) defines ellipsis in relation to substitution⁴⁷: while substitution is the replacement of one item by another, ellipsis, he says, on the other hand is the omission of one item. So, in a way - as Halliday explains - it is a form of substitution in which the item is replaced with nothing. What we are interested in here is elliptical items that, in Halliday’s words, leave specific structural slots to be filled from elsewhere as in Text 35: 126.

Text 35: 126 The composer Stravinsky was asked by Balanchine, the impresario, to choreograph a polka. What Balanchine had not told him was that the music had been commissioned by a circus.

‘Who exactly will be dancing this polka?’ asked Stravinsky.

‘Elephants,’ came the reply.

‘I see,’ said the composer. ‘How old?’

‘Young,’ said Balanchine.

‘If they’re very young,’ said Stravinsky, ‘I’ll do it.’ Well, they were; and he did- hence the circus polka.

(The Listener)

The responses to Stravinsky’s ‘wh-questions’: “who exactly will be dancing this polka?” and “how old?” as “elephants” and “young”, respectively as well as “do it”,

⁴⁷ While nominal (e.g. ‘one’) and verbal (e.g. ‘do’) substitutions were only occasionally awkward, ellipsis needed tackling more frequently.

“they were” and “he did” - are elliptical, i.e. the presupposed items can be recovered from the previous exchange between the two people.

The problem in translating the text into Arabic was that each elliptical item had to be dealt with differently. While some inevitably became non-elliptical, e.g. “How old?” became *كم عمرها*, the final possessive pronoun *ها* *ha* is sufficient to strip the question of its elliptical element. ‘young’ on the other hand, can remain elliptical, i.e. *قيلة* and *صغيرة*. The last paragraph, however, is a bit tricky and required some care in the translation for it to sound natural. Although “If they’re very young” can still remain the same in the translation, i.e. *إذا كانت صغيرة جدا*, it is preferable if the word ‘elephants’ is explicitly referred to, i.e. *إذا كانت الفيلة صغيرة جدا* *if the elephants were very young*. In fact the whole paragraph will be more natural in the translation if it is made more explicit, i.e. without ellipsis, i.e. *ذ كانت لفيلة صغيرة جدا، فسوف أقوم بتلحين موسيقى*. *وبالفعل كانت الفيلة صغيرة ومن ثم تم وضع موسيقى رقصة البولكا if the elephants were very young, I would choreograph the music of polka, said Stravinsky. Indeed, the elephants were young and so the music of polka dance was formulated.*⁴⁸

3.2.2.2. Theme and rheme

Quirk and Greenbaun (1973: 412) call the initial unit of a clause the theme. The theme, in their words, is characterized as the communicative point of departure for the rest of the clause. The rheme, or the ‘focus’, is the point of completion. What poses problems in translating from English into Arabic is when normal theme-rheme relations are disrupted, i.e. theme becomes marked as in Text 36: 128 below.

⁴⁸ This text proved to be one of the most difficult texts attempted by subjects in the main study. This fact was also indicated by one of the professional translators whose translation, among two others, was used as a model against which subjects’ translations were assessed during the multi-subject experiment.

Text 36: 128 Living in a small hotel on the left bank in Paris,
moving between contacts in the working-class
suburbs and among students in the Latin
Quarter, Tito gained many left-wing
international contacts.

(Phyllis Auty: Tito: A Biography)

To begin with, two lengthy clauses in Text 36: 128 above preceding the subject as a topic opening give emphasis to what originally should be the rheme “living, moving in the Latin Quarter” over the theme ‘Tito’. The immediate problem the text posed was that the inevitable alteration to bring ‘Tito’ to the front in the translation (to conform to Arabic thematic conventions, cf. 5.1.1.1.2.) would no doubt result in the loss of the emphasis that is intended in the ST.

Despite such a loss, when two versions of the translation of the above text were sent to a professional translator for opinion, the ST structure was preserved in the first, i.e.

اكتسب تيتو ... باقامته في فندق صغير ... and in the second all the details provided in the English text were introduced after the main topic was cited ... أثناء إقامته ...
Tito gained ... during his stay The preference was strongly in favour of the latter version.

3.2.2.3. Graphic devices

Among the graphic devices employed to serve discoursal purposes in English that were observed in the case-study to be problematic in translating from English into Arabic, and which will be discussed below, are punctuation, acronyms, capitalization, and italicization as markers of emphasis.

Punctuation

In reference to the difference between the Arabic punctuation system and the Western punctuation system, Sa'deddin (1987: 183) refers to the Arabic punctuation system as linguistically overt and that of the Western system as notationally codified, i.e. Arabic tend to use lexical morphemes, e.g. (و) and for (ف) for the codified punctuation patterns in English.

A first attempt to translate Text 37: 129 below proved that enforcing the English punctuation system in the translation would blur the Arabic text:

Text 37: 129 It has been said that if society wishes to show
you its contempt, it first ignores you, then if this
does not succeed, it laughs at you, and finally, if
all else fails, it attacks you. Although this is an
oversimplification, it is true that the mildest,
most negative form of insult is a show of
disinterest.

(Desmond Morris: Manwatching)

In the revised version all commas in the above text were substituted by lexical connectors in Arabic, namely the additive wa (و) and subsequent fa (ف) after realizing that keeping the commas as used in the original English text would result in the distortion of the text, breaking the linkage.

'Scare quotes' using inverted commas can also work as discourse markers. They are used to highlight the non-literality of the phrase between them; the writer does not vouch for the meaning. Thus, in Text 38: 130, what is put between inverted commas

is meant to give the opposite meaning. Although inverted commas are used in Arabic to serve discursial purposes, here the device would not work.

Text 38: 130 When do you open your Christmas presents?

Open them only in the privacy of your own
family. Do remember to leave the receipts in
'by mistake', then everyone can change
everything next week.

(SHE magazine)

Here, 'by mistake' implies pretending to have left them in by accident. In fact 'by mistake' virtually means intentionally here. Keeping the inverted commas in the translation was attempted, but by themselves they would not preserve the intended meaning as feedback from informants had shown. Stating explicitly the fact of pretending with the adverbial مدعيًا would work better. Such an explicitation⁴⁹, as indicated by Hatim (1997), is often needed in translating into Arabic, particularly with pragmatic ambiguities (cf. Irony above).

Acronyms

Acronyms employ capitalization. As described by Tariki and Atari (1993: 244) in the context of pragmatics and discourse, acronyms are potentially of a cryptic nature. In discourse their presence can cause serious problems of interpretation and thus serious challenge to the translator.

⁴⁹ 'Explicitation is a process which consists of introducing information into the target language which is present implicitly in the source language, but it can be derived from the context or the situation'. Vinay and Darbelnet (1958: 8) quoted in Klaudy (1996: 99).

Apart from the rhetorical and discursual problems related to the use of acronyms, (e.g. puns), when they are presented with no keys to decode them, their translation can be arduous. While with international acronyms there are lists that can be used as resource reference, with other acronyms the translator is left unaided, as in Text 39: 131 below.

Text 39: 131 The local KOMPAS office will allocate the reserved apartment upon your arrival at your resort. Since KOMPAS local offices work within fixed hours, we would not advise you to book this type of accommodation if your arrival in the resort is later than 20.00 hours.

(Pan Adriatic tourist brochure)

This text was shown to two native speakers of English; neither was sure about the full meaning of the acronyms.

As a compromise, acronyms can sometimes be retained in their Roman script when there is a sure indication that the acronym in hand is a familiar one to target readers, however, this strategy contrasts with the purists' point of view (cf. Arabization above and 5.1.1.1.1.).

Markers of emphasis: capitalization and italicization

Such graphic devices as capital letters and italicization used for emphasis in English do not exist in Arabic, as Text 40: 132 illustrates.

Text 40: 132 These special cans have a layer of golden-coloured lacquer over the inside surface, which prevents the fruit from coming into contact with the tin itself. They may be used for all fruits, and are ESSENTIAL for purple or red-coloured fruits, such as blackcurrants and raspberries.

(Marguerite Patten: 500 Recipes: Jams, Pickles, Chutneys)

While the word ESSENTIAL in Text 40: 132 can only be emphasized by preceding it with an intensifier such as جدا *very*, the case is different with NOT in Text 41: 132 below.

Text 41: 132 Please complete and return the slip below. In order to save costs, applications will NOT be acknowledged

(The Society of Authors newsletter)

There is simply no way to put emphasis on ‘not’ in the TT that matches the one expressed by capitalization in the ST.

3.2.2.3. Background knowledge

Another term for world knowledge is extra-textual information, as opposed to textual linguistic knowledge (Doorslaer 1995: 253). A key problem in translation is when world knowledge is not shared or presupposed knowledge is implicit.

In Text 35: 126 above - Balanchine asking Stravinsky to choreograph a polka while the music had been commissioned by a circus - the English reader belonging to a

European culture may well have the advantage over the Arabic reader in knowing more about an early 20th century Russian composer of classical music than the new targeted audience. Another problem, perhaps the greatest, is that the translator him/herself must know the extra-textual information. As for the translator (the researcher) in this case-study, some of the extra-textual information was supplied by native speakers of English.

Thus, to be aware of the presupposed assumption that Stravinsky was not a mere composer in the old-fashioned sense of the word serves a great deal towards getting the message of how Balanchine, 'the impresario', managed to persuade him to choreograph music for the 'circus' – a public entertainment not socially prestigious - even if the dance was a 'polka'. Such pre-supposed shared knowledge cannot be transferred by the mere transfer of the surface meaning.⁵⁰ In fact this argument can only serve to enforce that presupposed information at a textual level is the most difficult to transfer and the most likely to be lost (cf. comments on subjects' translations of Text 41: 132 under Text Level Errors: Chapter Four: Section Two).

To define the problem and assess its difficulty, consultation with a professional translator was sought. His suggestion was in cases like these the translator might find him/herself obliged to play the role of the scenarist by expanding the text with some adjectives, even though this would add elements that are not in the ST.

However, the problem related to the question "what's it all about"? (Text 2: 84 above) is in the assumed referent 'it', which refers to the many questions Lord Russell asks in his writings as a philosopher. To relate that he couldn't answer this question is

⁵⁰ See Chapter Four where students experienced real problems in translating this text.

intended to be a joke. Although making the question 'what's it all about?' more explicit in the translation might help in clarifying the point, it would risk sacrificing the joke. An element of shared knowledge between the writer and the reader is assumed by the text. This shared knowledge - when absent with regard to the new reader - causes a real problem in decoding the question⁵¹. But no less a problem facing the translator in the case-study in translating such texts is the tightness of the text. Explicitly spelling out in detail what was implied in the original is easier with texts with room for expansion (e.g. Text 29: 118 above). However it is not possible with what Nord (1991: 133) calls compact texts such as Text 2: 84.

3.2.2.4. Register and style

Halliday (1976: 23) defines 'register' as:

The set of meanings, the configuration of semantic patterns, that are typically drawn upon under the specified conditions, along with the words and structures that are used in the realization of these meanings.

Catford (1965: 85) differentiates between 'register' and 'style' as follows: 'register' is a variety related to the wider social role being played by the performer at the moment of utterance, e.g. 'scientific', 'religious', 'civil-service', etc; 'style' is a variety related to the number and nature of addressees and the performer's relation to them, e.g. 'formal', colloquial', 'intimate'. 'Style' is used by Mason (1982: 24) in a more general sense he calls it 'the tone of the text', and is determined by what he calls the domain of the text (Chapter Two, Section One). He refers to the five styles of English usage

⁵¹ See Chapter Four: Section Two, for difficulties experienced by students in translating this text where the expression "what's it all about?" was the main source of difficulty, as was indicated by the students either in the interviews or by underlining the expression as being problematic.

distinguished by Joos (1962): frozen, formal, informal, colloquial and vulgar (see also Nida 1976: 56-57, Catford 1965: 90, and Crystal and Davy 1969: 74).

What distinguishes one style from another is found in markers at one of the following levels: grammatical, lexical and phonological.

In translation, problems can arise when the specific markers of different styles are very different in the SL and TL. Apart from the risk of the inevitable 'style shift' in translating informal English texts into Arabic, the problem is more visible when different levels of styles are used at the same time. Text 42: 135 below starts with a neutral style (personalized subject + active verb) while the italicized expression towards the end is more colloquial.

Text 42: 135 The editors have aimed the book at both
engineers and lay readers, though I think the
latter would find some of it a little heavy going.

(Book review, New Scientist)

The phrase 'a little heavy going' in "though I think the latter would find some of it a little heavy going", I only managed to translate non idiomatically in Arabic, i.e. إلا أنني استبعد أن تستسيغه الفئة الأخيرة هذه *I doubt this latter category would find it digestable*. Only in such a fashion would it correlate with the formal style of the rest of the text. Here, one asks oneself how important it is to stick to the original given mixture of styles in such a type of text.⁵²

⁵²For co-occurrence between levels of style, see Crystal and Davy, (1969).

3.2.2.5. Culture

Practitioners of translation say that practically no text is free from a cultural element.

Moreover,

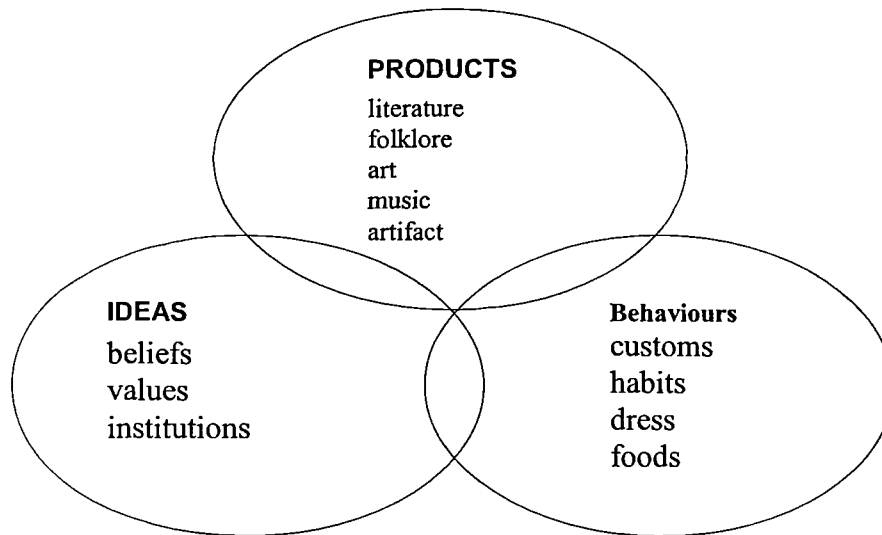
In effect, one does not translate LANGUAGE, one translates
CULTURE (Casagrande 1954: 338).⁵³

Despite the fact that this last view is opposed by those who believe not everything is determined by the relation of language to culture and that many aspects of translation transcend cultural boundaries (Wilss 1994: 38), culture remains a central element in translation.

Culture is a term defined by the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary as falling within the context of its components such as art, literature, music, customs, social institutions and intellectual expressions of a particular society. In this study, I borrow Tomalin & Stempelski's (1993) three-category-classification. Elements of culture as presented by Tomalin & Stempelski are cited in the diagram below:

⁵³ Quoted in Ivir (1987: 35).

DIAGRAM 1 ELEMENTS OF CULTURE



The above classification seems to be both prudent and convincing and handy but probably too economic. However, from the vast categories of culture, what will be discussed below are only representative examples: humour, religion, politics and taboos.

3.2.2.1. **Humour**

Many aspects of humour remain culture-specific, where their translation depends on the proximity of cultures: the more distant the two cultures concerned, the more difficult the understanding of humour will be. What in one culture is intended to be amusing, another culture simply might not find funny. Jokes, for example, are often considered as being local and their humour too difficult to appreciate when translated.

A number of texts in the collection for which translation was attempted in this case-study exhibit humour in different ways. Wordplay as a humorous device, including irony and puns, are discussed under ‘rhetorical and stylistic devices’ above. However, in this section I present a text that displays satire as an example of humour that is culturally bound.

Satire is described by Abrams (1988:166) as:

The literary art of diminishing or derogating a subject by making it ridiculous and evoking towards it attitudes of amusement, contempt, scorn, or indignation.

Abrams states that, since satire occurs as an incidental element in many works whose overall mode is not satiric, it might not be easily recognized. This is what Pontiero calls ‘veiled satire’. For someone unaware of the source culture, Text 43: 138 might not seem as satirical at first as it is in reality, since much of what is included can also be seen as flattering (see results of the multi- subject study Chapter Four, Section Two).

Text 43: 138 I walked towards Pevensey (Pevensey Bay being
the spot where William landed his army in 1066)
and decided that anyone who came ashore at
Cooden Beach would find himself face to face with
quintessential England - not just coastal, seaside
holiday retirement England, but secretive, rose-
growing, dog-loving, window-washing, church-
going, law-abiding, grumpy, library-using, tea-
drinking, fussy and inflexible England.

(Paul Theroux: The Kingdom by the Sea)

Even if the satire is understood, the same mechanisms to recreate the effect in the target language may not be available, or else the recipient culture might not find the notion humorous. Besides the fact that most of the descriptions the writer presents are local and culture bound. The main problem in translating Text 43: 138 into Arabic, therefore, lies in the fact that it conveys a meaning that is not perceived at the first glance by someone who is not familiar with the style of the writer or popular images of what is seen as boring and old fashioned in English culture.

3.2.2.2. Religion

Conventional English discourse is much less culturally tied to religion than conventional Arabic discourse, where it is normal to start and end a letter, for example, with a religious salutation, or to translate what can be described as an English “secularism” to a religious phrase, as in Text 44: 139 below.

Text 44: 139 ‘Mrs Moore, what is this echo?’

‘Don’t you know?’

‘No- what is it? Oh, do say! I felt you would be able to explain it.

(E. M. Forster: A Passage to India)

In such contexts, the emphasis in do say is usually expressed idiomatically in the Arabic, i.e. قولي بالله عليك *say, for God’s sake*.

With “Sunday” it is doubtful that the Arabic reader would need to do any homework to know that it is a holy day in Christianity and is the day of rest in Western culture, yet in our example below, ‘Sunday afternoon’ bears an additional cultural load:

Text 45: 140 I remember the slightly self-conscious Sunday
afternoon, when I was nineteen, and I ‘composed’
my first two ‘poems’.

(D. H. Lawrence: Phoenix)

The reference to “Sunday” in Text 45: 140 conveys more than plain rest, which can hardly be rendered in the TT. Customarily in Protestant families, Sunday was a day of enforced rest, of which the morning was spent at church service and the afternoon at home, rather than a day of pleasure, as observed today. In translating the text into Arabic, “Sunday” afternoon would not connote much of that of the sense of the original.

3.2.2.3. Politics

One problem related to translating political texts in particular and journalistic style in general is that the theme of argumentative discourse differs in the two languages Arabic and English. British newspapers have various approaches towards handling political issue. For example, some bluntly criticize politicians, others do so mildly and it is most problematic when it is done in a subtle way. In Text 46: 140 below there is a remark hinting at the failure of Mrs. Thatcher’s economic policy:

Text 46: 140 Mrs Thatcher has succeeded in making people
believe in her economic ‘miracle’, which, as we
have repeatedly argued, is largely an illusion.

(The Economist Review)

This carefully written passage is typical of political writing in British journalism. Three elements in the text show how this type of writing proceeds in English:

initiating the argument with a veiled positive remark ‘succeeded’, argued through with concession using an ironic remark, in this case “miracle” and ending with what turned out to be negative conclusion that Thatcher’s economic achievements were fictions – an ‘illusion’. With a short text as this one, the translator left with not many options but to follow the ST theme proceeding. This would probably lead to the TT sounding stronger implying a sort of cunning on the part of Mrs. Thatcher and her policies.

The problem is that the translator left with no options but to follow the ST theme proceeding, which would how to translate without showing an influence of.

3.2.2.4. Taboos

The concept of ‘taboo’ is related to ‘politeness’, which as stated by Baker (1992: 234) is in turn:

A relativistic notion and different cultures therefore have different norms of ‘polite’ behaviour.

The non-euphemistic use by writers of what is considered socially and religiously taboo can be perceived as being distasteful and in the case of translators - if they are not ‘taboo’ conscious - irresponsible (Abou Libdeh 1991: 200). In the example below the word ‘thighs’ is not considered as highly sexual in the source culture.

Text 47: 141 A girl I know, who prided herself on her long
 slender thighs, gave up short dresses for ever
 after an assistant at department store told her:
 ‘The trouble is, Madam, you’ve got low knees.’

(The Sunday Times)

In translation, the problem lies not so much in how to tone the term down to something less obtrusive, but in how the translator is to judge accurately what would be distasteful in the target culture. As far as this example is concerned, eventually ساقها 'her legs' seemed to be more appropriate.

The policy of deletion is one strategy that was adopted by the translators of Hamlet into Arabic, to deal with matters considered taboo by the recipient culture (Shurafa 1986). This brings home the point raised by Delabastita (1994: 231) about the difference between 'what must not be translated' in order not to offend the audience, and 'what cannot be translated' because of lack of equivalence, the concept of untranslatability. The problem exhibited by Text 48: 142 however, is different.

Text 48: 142 We can now begin to see the difference between nakedness and nudity ... *In his book on The Nude*, Kenneth Clark maintains that to be naked is simply to be without clothes, whereas the nude is a form of art.

(John Berger: Ways of Seeing)

Besides the fact that the notion around which Text 48: 142 above revolves is taboo in the target culture, there are no two words in TL to express the difference emphasized between 'naked' and 'nude', in the ST (cf. Vocabulary: near synonyms).

3.2.3. Conclusion

To sum up this section about translation problems in context and indeed the whole chapter of the researcher case-study, it has to be emphasised that the problems discussed here are based on the personal experience of the researcher whose main objective was to explore the type of problems posed by the collection of source texts.

The experience of translating the texts has generated translation problems which appear to fall under two main categories: problems related to language features and problems related to textual features. The discussion above has shown that although certain individual instances can be highly problematic in and some belonging to certain sub-categories translate straightforwardly in either category, in general translation problems belonging to textual features are more difficult to navigate than language problems.

During the process of material assessment, it was found that the collection of texts in the material under discussion does indeed provide a rich source for generating translation problems.

However, the results of this researcher case-study cannot be generalized without being tested in a multi-subject study. This is what will be done in the main study in the next chapter. What has to be pointed out at this stage is that the problems listed here are not only those which were insoluble and have remained so. They include problems which were eventually solved but entailed effort and resources to be solved – whether or not their solutions resulted in translation loss. In the multi-subject study the main focus is on errors, i.e. problems that were not solved; but the effort and resources aspect is also looked at by asking students to report on difficulties in translation process.

CHAPTER FOUR: MAIN STUDY

4.1 Section One:

Experiment Design and Data Collection and Analysis

4.1.0. Introduction

In the previous chapter, Chapter Three, translation problems were investigated by means of translating actual texts in a long case-study that resulted in the provisional identification of a list of translation problems. This case-study also generated a hypothetical framework for the classification of such problems. In this chapter the provisional taxonomy established in Chapter Three will be tested and refined with students in a multi-subject study using a selection of texts from the same collection. This process is intended to complement the case-study discussed in Chapter Three by establishing the frequency of errors made by the students. The two studies carry equal weight, but each has its different merits: the case-study has breadth (tries to cover as wide a range of problems as possible) but lacks depth (problem is tested only by one translator). The multi-subject study is the converse (narrower range of problems, but more translators) (see Flick, 1998: 71 and Doorslaer, 1995: 247).

Another difference between the two studies is their measurement of problems. In the researcher case-study problems were measured in terms of process ‘difficulty’, i.e. the amount of effort it took to search for solutions, whereas in the multi subject-study problems were mainly measured according to the count and quality of errors. This does not mean that problems, and the process of solving them, which were solved were dismissed. On the contrary, the technique of underlining used by students to

identify problem-solving, hence 'difficulty' will reveal such problems and will be analyzed accordingly here.

If problems are to be described in a systematic way (research questions 1 and 2) and problems are to be ranked (research question 3), we need to know which difficulties and errors are typically encountered and made - we require a corpus. Indications from a previous corpus which the present researcher collected from undergraduate students during actual teaching at Al Fateh University, Tripoli, Libya, in the period 1993-1995, and using texts used in this study (Duff, 1989) showed students experienced serious difficulties that were manifested in errors of different types. The fact that the previous corpus was not collected under research conditions, however, meant that a more rigorous study had to be done to provide valid data (cf. Chapter One: Introduction).

This chapter is divided into two sections. Section One consists of Experiment Design, Data Collection and Data Analysis. In this section, we discuss the methods of the multi-subject study with regard to:

- Aim and objectives.
- Subjects, settings and material selection.
- Methodology (discussion of methods).
- Actual procedures of data collection and data analysis.

In Section Two, Results and Findings are presented both quantitatively (statistically) and qualitatively (interpretatively).

4.1.1. Aim and objectives

While the general aim of the study as a whole, as stated broadly earlier (Chapter One), was to investigate “the main problems faced by learners in translating from English

into Arabic” and still remains the same here, this study has its own specific objectives. The experiment carried out in the multi-subject study presented in this chapter aims to test the translation problems provisionally identified in the case-study (Chapter Three) against a multi-category group of subjects (undergraduates, post graduates and novice professional translators) using a sub-set of the texts from the case-study. While the first objective of the multi-subject study is to find out what translation problems the subjects have encountered, the second objective of this study is to find out about the frequency of such problems and to *consider the question of their severity*. A *third* is to test the difference the level of proficiency makes in the learners’ performance (research question 4). In other words, how much better is the translation of the more advanced skilled language students (post-graduate) compared to that of the inexperienced less advanced language (undergraduate) students and/or whether their pattern of errors is different.

One hypothesis set by this study is that while failure to comprehend the ST (incompetence in the SL) inevitably leads to incorrect translation, the opposite is not necessarily always true: comprehension of the ST does not necessarily lead to correct translation.

4.1.2. Place and subjects

As for opportunities for the study with regard to place, Al-Fateh University, Tripoli Libya, supplied exactly the type of students/subjects which the researcher was interested in (Arabic-native students of English getting translation training as part of

their English degree). (cf. Chapter One: Introduction)⁵⁴. Al Fateh University was an environment familiar to me, where little effort was needed to create a trustful, friendly relationship with the subjects, and to encourage and convince them to participate in the experiment. Most of them at least knew the researcher personally as being their former teacher or were acquainted with her through contacts in educational circles and/or education related events. Also, face to face contacts with subjects and access to their course grades for the purpose of selection according to a range of abilities were made easier.

Since written consent was not mandatory, consent to participate in the study was based on good will. Subjects are of three categories: fourth year undergraduates, post-graduates and novice translators, all studying English or having studied English for a substantial number of years (the choice of the first two groups was to test whether there is any correlation between level of SL proficiency and the type of errors subjects make – language-level errors vs. text-level errors). As for the novice translators the aim was to test whether work experience makes any difference in terms of the number and quality of errors made.

As for the sampling of populations, there were two phases to the study. Phase One started with twelve subjects (six fourth year undergraduate students at the English Department, four post-graduate students and two novice translators). While the selection of subjects was made on a volunteer basis, for the “purposive sampling” of different levels of ability and skills, there was an element of targeting particular candidates to participate. Subjects (undergraduates, in particular) were therefore

⁵⁴ Postgraduate students also participated from the Academy of Graduate Studies, which is an independent institution from the university.

approached on the basis of prior knowledge of their performance either through access to their records or according to the recommendations of staff who knew them closely through teaching them. The aim in the selection of subjects in Phase One was to get students of average proficiency as well as those of a high and low ability level, while in Phase Two the aim was to test a wide spectrum of ability with an even spread of ability.

In Phase Two of the study - to collect more data in order to make the findings more generalizable - a wider group of participants were targeted. However, since preliminary analysis of Phase One data showed no significant difference between the two novice translators and the post-graduate students, only undergraduate and post-graduate students were approached in Phase Two. The reason for including undergraduate students is that, since the original material to be tested is intended for undergraduate learners, the group of undergraduates (ranging from “good” and “weak” according to their grades) was expected to provide highly representative data. Twenty post-graduates were approached for consent to participate; fourteen expressed their willingness to take part and participated in the experiment. Two classes of seventy fourth year undergraduates were asked to take part, of whom fifty⁵⁵ chose to participate and completed the necessary task sheets. Although self-selection based on volunteering might be a potential source of bias and hence act as an interfering variable in the interpretation of the findings, students’ course grades did not show any correlation between volunteering and level of proficiency.

⁵⁵ Some students took permission to leave before even the task started and some refrained from handing in the task sheets on the basis that they would hand them in later but they failed to do so.

4.1.3. Material: texts selection

Since the focus of this study is on translation products as data, a heavy emphasis was laid on material selection. Ten main texts were used, and an extra nine were used as back ups (nineteen in all). The main criterion was that they exhibit as many varied translation problems as possible. However, other criteria were also observed:

Length: It was a priority not to include very long texts, which might prove tiring and lead to boredom on the part of the subjects, which in turn could discourage them from completing the task or prompt them to abandon other activities accompanying the task, such as writing a commentary, or even decline attending the interview. Very short texts, on the other hand, were only selected if they posed particular translation problems not present in the longer texts selected. In general, texts were typically one paragraph long consisting of four to five lines.⁵⁶

Problem Content: As the main purpose of the task was to test translation problems, the selection of the texts was, on the evidence of the researcher case study, mainly based on how many varied problems each might exhibit, and on how far the final collection of texts as a whole was comprehensive, hence representing as many as possible of the translation problems identified in Study One. Of course, when a text exhibits more than one translation problem, interference between problems (cf. Section Two, Variables) becomes more possible. This means that one problem can create another or lead to another and/or that the presence of one problem makes another one more difficult, hence making it more difficult to determine ranking in terms of difficulty (cf. Chapter Five, Discussion). For practical reasons, however, not

⁵⁶ For a discussion on short/long texts in translation research in the context of exhaustiveness and representativeness, see Doorslaer (1995: 252).

every translation problem can be tested in isolation from others, and as a matter of principle, it may not be desirable, as problems interact in real life. Table 5 below shows the type and distribution of problems according to which texts were selected:

TABLE (5): TEXTS USED IN THE MAIN STUDY: PROBLEM SELECTION CRITERIA.

Text	Language Features												Textual Features												No. of features
	Vocabulary												Grammar	Rhetorical and stylistic devices	Cohesion	Register	Background	Culture	P O						
	C M	S P	L V	A R	C O	C L	P V	F E	T R	A T	A C	W O								P S	M S	R P	W P	C D	
1				x		x						X	x												5
2			x				x	x				X	x				x				x				7
3				x				x				X	x	X			x		x		x				8
4									x			X		X											3
5					x				x				x												3
6		X								X			x												3
7					x			x			x		x												3
8		X													x			x			x			x	3
9								x				X				x	x	x						x	3
10							x	x								x	x			x	x				4
11	x			x													x								3
12								x												x					2
13																x	x				x	x	x		5
14											x			X					x						3
15													x				x	x				x	x		5
16					x												x				x	x			4
17					x							X					x								3
18					x		x		x				x						x						5
19															X	x						x			3

Key to table: CM Connotative meaning, SP Synonyms/ Polysemy, LV Lexical voids, AR Arabization, CO Compounds, CL Collocations, PV Phrasal verbs, FE Fixed expressions, TR Technical terminology, AT Articles, AC Anaphora/Cataphora, WO Word Order, PS Passive, MS Metaphor and simile, RP Repetition and Parallelism, WP Wordplay, CD Cohesive Devices, TR Theme and rheme, GD Graphic Devices, RG Register and style, BK Background knowledge, PO Politics, RE Religion, HU Humour.

These nineteen texts (see Appendix 1) were selected from a 'long list' of forty-five representative texts, according to the above criteria. Initially ten texts were selected and tried with twelve students, then another nine were added; the option of their inclusion was left open when the actual experiment took place and when circumstances allowed. The extra nine did not replace the main ten, but were added to them to gather more data. Some subjects translated all nineteen texts whereas others varied in the number they translated (the highest was thirty-six subjects to translate

one text and the lowest was eight). However, a T test (see below) showed that there was no difference in error distribution between those doing ten and those doing nineteen.

- - - t-tests for paired samples - - -

(DETAILED CATEGORIES)

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE
DROPOUTS				.42	.60	
STAYERS				.51	.58	
Paired Differences						
Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig	
-.10	.16	.04	-2.25	13	.04	
95% CI (-.19 -.00)						

- - - t-tests for paired samples - - -

(BIG CATEGORIES)

Variable	Number of pairs	Corr	2-tail Sig	Mean	SD	SE
DROPOVER				1.50	1.23	
STAYOVER				1.80	1.27	
Paired Differences						
Mean	SD	SE of Mean	t-value	df	2-tail Sig	
-.29	.40	.20	-1.47	3	.24	
95% CI (-.93 .34)						

Subject matter: Variation in subject matter was also a criterion for selection, as was maintaining a balance between literary/ and non-literary texts.

There are two variables which might potentially have interfered with the analysis of data. The first is that some texts were either abandoned after an initial start or were not translated at all. These may be assumed to be the most problematic, and if the translation attempted and the target texts had been analyzed, they would have exhibited a high proportion of errors. The fact they were dropped from the calculation means that the figures probably are not 100% representative. Yet, the proportion of these texts in relation to those that were actually translated is in fact very low, thus their effect can be disregarded.

The second variable is that text selection was purposive rather than random. Purposive sampling might bias error-counts. In other words, error-counts reflect the problems for which the texts were selected (cf. Table 5). However, all texts contain myriad potential problems (not just those they were selected for) and the number of texts used in the study is relatively large, so the actual problems encountered are likely to be much more random than might appear from Table 5. For example, texts 14-19 in Table 5 were selected for grammar problems, but the actual figures show more than twice as many Incorrect and Inappropriate errors of vocabulary as of grammar. Nevertheless, purposive sampling may have resulted in some of the least common problems being over-represented in the sample indeed, some may not have occurred at all in a random sample of nineteen texts. So, though the relative ranking of problems is likely to be random, the actual percentage occurrences should be interpreted with caution, at least with the less frequent error-types.

The collection of texts to be tested, therefore, represents the vast majority of translation problems belonging to the main list put forward earlier (cf. Chapter Three). All texts were translated by the researcher during the case-study; besides the researcher's own translation, texts to be tested in the main study were also translated by three other professional translators, so that their translations could be used as models against which the subjects' translations were assessed (cf. Lauscher 2000: 163). Two of the three translators were professional translators who translate on a daily basis and teach English to university students. The other was an expert in Arabic and translates academic works - mainly literary material - from English to Arabic.

4.1.4. Methods and procedures

The search for the methods to carry out the investigation was targeted toward the most appropriate for the pre-set aims, in order to identify and to rank the translation problem/s each text poses.

Translation problems could be measured by means of either one of the following or a combination of them: solving time, product assessment and perception of translation difficulty. The disadvantages of the technique usually used to measure solving time and assess students' hesitation during the process of carrying out the task of the think-aloud technique (cf. 2.1.4. Literature Review) is its time-consuming nature for the researcher. Problems also lie in defining the difficulty of measuring the degree of hesitation, and when a "productive" (thinking) hesitation becomes a "problematic" one. Besides, the think-aloud technique, being a lab technique, would pose restrictions on performing the task on a large number of students, while a take-home task would be the only practical way to get data. Moreover, the 'think aloud technique' can only be used on a limited number of subjects, rendering it hard to implement in a large-

scale study like the present one. The other way to obtain material symptomatic of problems experienced by subjects is assigning them translation tasks. Such a method entails imposing external norms and executing product assessment according to fixed criteria that lead to the identification of errors as markers of problems experienced. However, here the problems are: how do we know that standards are reliable; and what are the criteria that separate acceptable vs. unacceptable? (Cf. 2.2.2.).

Another problem with error assessment is its assessor-centered nature: it does not involve the subject's perception of what might be a problem and the degree of its difficulty. Testing "difficulty", i.e. the perception of translation problems, can be conducted by simultaneous tests in which students are asked to signal their perception of problems on the task sheet itself and/or post-translation tests, i.e. after the task in the form of a questionnaire or by means of an interview. This method can provide significant information about causes of difficulty. However, in the latter case there would be a disadvantageous time-gap between encountering and explaining problems on the part of the subjects.

In the light of the above, the decision was made to use a combination of methods: product assessment and perception of translation difficulty, so that one compensates the shortcomings of the other.

4.1.4.1. Product assessment

In this multi-subject study the notion of "problems" is operationalised as "errors", on the one hand, and "perceived difficulty" on the other. While error assessment is by definition product oriented, perceived difficulty is more a process-oriented factor. Errors, as symptoms of problems, are assessed quantitatively and qualitatively

according to a taxonomy of errors (see below). In terms of figures, the more errors made by the same students with respect to a certain category, the more it would be considered a problem. With regard to ranking the difficulty of a problem, a system of classifying errors in terms of severity was put in place. The system divides errors according to certain criteria to two sub-categories: *Incorrect* and *Inappropriate* (cf. Section Two this chapter). Errors belonging to the category of *Incorrect* are classified as severe and those belong to the category of *Inappropriate* are classified less severe.

4.1.4.2. Perceived difficulty

It was felt that error data - though the main source of information in this study - would be more reliable if backed by information from different sources. The idea was that the translation product would offer the concrete evidence, but what is problematic from the point of view of the subjects was also important, so perceived difficulty was also assessed by means of both simultaneous and post-translation tests.

Bearing in mind that such tasks of translating the texts - each of which is chosen as being potentially problematic at least at one instance - is already highly demanding, any additional extra tasks should be light in their execution. Accordingly, the decision was to make maximum use of the translation task sheet and less of external activities.

Simultaneous tests to assess perceived difficulty were done by asking students to specify items looked up in the dictionary by writing 'D' at the top of the item and underline difficult items/sections (double underline those parts which they thought difficult and underline once those which they thought to be less difficult) while translating. The subjects' underlining of problematic areas helped in identifying and ranking difficulties, i.e. problems as subjects saw them from their point of view.

Subjects followed this instruction in varying degrees. Some also underlined their translation they suspected to be wrong. Problem-items which were eventually solved may be considered as lower ranking ones than those which resulted in errors. By itself, this technique is not a reliable means of identifying all problematic areas for the subjects, even if they recorded all the difficulties they perceived, because they might not necessarily perceive difficulties whenever their product exhibits errors and will almost certainly under-report difficulties. However, the researcher will get an idea of the most salient difficulties; and the fact that there are multiple subjects means that some subjects will mention difficulties that others may have overlooked reporting.

Students were also asked to write a commentary after translation and note down the time each task took, but the latter was not used in the final analysis. Time spent on each task was not an important issue, as far as the present study is concerned. A total of thirty subjects out of seventy-four wrote commentaries or notes. While only a few of them made use of the slot allocated for writing a commentary on the cover page, a number of subjects wrote commentaries inside the task sheets. Others chose to write remarks on the margin of the task sheet or jot down notes here and there. In other words, commentaries are what subjects wrote, usually after finishing the task, giving their impression of it and the difficulties they experienced whereas notes are remarks subjects jotted down while they were carrying out the task, e.g. “the word ‘Latin Quarter’ starts with a capital letter, it must be a noun. It would not be in the dictionary”.⁵⁷

⁵⁷ Failing to look up ‘the Latin Quarter’ in the dictionary led to errors in a number of students translations.

While all the commentaries (mainly about the difficulty of the task or specific problems in the task and dictionary use) were addressed to the researcher, most of the notes seemed to be a form of thinking aloud. For example, in reference to “Cana”, Text Fourteen, one subject wrote, “the word is not found in the dictionary. From the shape of the word (presumably because it starts with a capital letter) the word seems to be a proper noun, so I kept it as in the original”. Such notes, though they are not many, were useful in indicating what was going on in the minds of the participant at the time of carrying out the task. In the commentaries, subjects either shed more light on problems they experienced in carrying out the task or reiterated what they had already emphasized by means of underlining. Nonetheless, information which subjects provided in the form of the commentaries and notes is considered as a useful part of the data.

In order to retrieve information that was difficult to extract from the written data or underlining, post translation tests were performed by asking a random sample of students (12 students) individually in interviews directly after the task about incidents of “trouble” or difficulty. As most questions were triggered from the individual’s translation product, obtaining information via questionnaires would not have been feasible. Accordingly post-translation interviews were favoured over questionnaires and the creation of a structured questionnaire was not planned.

Interviews were intended to directly ask the students about their experience of the task and the problems they might have encountered. In addition they answered questions about specific instances in their production to clear up uncertainties about their translations (such as inconsistent or conflicting information) that are difficult to extract by mere analysis of the data. The key aim of the interviewing technique,

therefore, was to find evidence that supports, complements and/or illustrates what the product data can reveal about areas of difficulty. Interviews were also done to establish subjects' comprehension of the texts since, as far as this aspect is concerned, often one can only speculate or guess about it by the mere analysis of subjects' product. Other questions related to evaluating the difficulty of the task and the use of resources. Another purpose of the interviews was to identify difficult sections from the point of view of the subjects, which they failed to indicate by means of underlining on the task sheet. A further area that was investigated with the subjects in the interviews was to identify slips and distinguish them from errors, i.e. when erroneous translations were shown to the subjects, they sometimes corrected themselves. Also in the interviews subjects clarified changes they made when copying drafts into final versions.

The interviews were semi-structured, involving two types of question: pre-set and open-ended. Comprehension of certain elements of the text as a whole was tested through pre-set questions. The open-ended questions were dominated by what phenomena the actual individual translation showed or answers students provided to each pre-set question. Moreover, information that students volunteered was as valuable as that extracted from them through questioning.

However, before implementing the methods in the actual study, it was decided to try them out in pilot studies. The purpose of the pilot studies was to determine if the methods adopted would work in achieving the aim set for this study, to investigate translation problems.

4.1.4.3. Pilot studies

The pilot studies were intended to prepare for the actual study by applying the techniques to a small group of subjects and using a mock version of the actual study, where the first five short texts of the nineteen were tested.

Initially it was carried out on two Arab postgraduate students at Newcastle University (the two students had an advanced level of English with a good background in Arabic) and later on two other Arab students, a translation trainee post-graduate from Heriot-Watt University and a translation PhD student from Durham University.

The pilot studies were helpful in deriving a system of classifying errors according to categories so that a coding system could be established. They also showed how important the post-task interviews were in retrieving information from the subjects about the task which was hard to extract from their written product. Also, it showed the importance of the underlining system in measuring subjects' perceived difficulty. In short, the pilot studies helped to clarify certain matters related to conducting the forthcoming study, chief among which was the generation of a preliminary rater guide (see Appendix 2) system, as will be explained below.

4.1.4.4. Data collection procedures

The plan for the multi-subject study was designed on the basis of the pilot studies. The bulk of data was collected by means of the nineteen texts.

Below, actual procedures of data collection and data analysis will be discussed. Data collecting was completed in two phases, both of which lasted two months, the second

phase being carried out one month after the first. Each phase will be discussed separately below.

4.1.4.4.1. Phase One

In Phase One the twelve subjects (six undergraduates, four postgraduates and two novice translators) were met individually. All carried out translation tasks, and all were interviewed (some about all tasks, some about certain tasks).

Most of the tasks and interviews were conducted in the meeting room (a few were conducted in the students' common room) at the Faculty of Languages, Al Fateh University, Tripoli. For the two novice translators and four post-graduates, tasks followed by the interviews were mostly carried out at their place of work.

During the period of two months when Phase One took place, between two and four subjects participated in sessions held every day, in which the workload of each subject was to translate between two to four texts. A close contact was maintained with the individual subjects as the tasks were done in a sequence of researcher-led sessions. In each session the task was clearly explained to every participant and the written instructions (writing comments, underlining etc.) were also emphasized verbally. Imposing a time limit on the subjects, it was thought, would only add unnecessary pressure on the subjects that might hinder them from carrying out the task in full. However, a space on the task sheet was allocated to indicate the time the subject took in carrying out the task.

Subjects were allowed to use dictionaries but were not supplied with any, they used their own. Without being instructed to use a particular dictionary, they all used Al Mawrid English/Arabic, but some also used English/English dictionaries such as the

Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. This may be regarded as a variable, but since investigating errors related to dictionary use is not a primary objective of the study, not much emphasis was put on this aspect here. Subjects were also encouraged to submit their first drafts together with their final translations. The purpose was to identify possible slips (in case students miscopied correct translations in the final versions) through comparing drafts with final versions (cf. Chapter Two, Section Two: Literature Review).

Early translation and comment tasks were done 'on site', followed by post-translation interviews with all twelve students. As texts are short, the interview for each text took approximately three minutes and a maximum of five. Most interviews were recorded and then transcribed. When recording was not convenient or thought to be a distracting factor, notes were taken.

After a few sessions, it was felt that regular post-task interviews were strenuous and might distract subjects from carrying out each translation task properly by encouraging them to focus more upon the subsequent discussion. Hence, interviews took place at the subjects' convenience after they had translated and submitted the texts; some had even prepared written notes to mention during the interview session.

4.1.4.4.2. Phase Two

While the data initially collected from the twelve volunteers in Phase One did provide useful information, it was felt that any findings would have to be backed by results from a larger cohort to reduce the role of any extraneous variables (Nord 1991b: 103).

A larger number of subjects from fourth year students and post-graduate students participated in Phase Two (see above). After being given details of the study, the

students completed the initial translation tasks in class, while the rest (translating a set of texts) were to be completed at home and returned later on. The in-class vs. take-home tasks were not considered a variable that might affect the results because in either case students were not constrained by time limit and in both cases they were allowed access to all resources. In Phase Two, no interviews were involved but subjects were encouraged to write commentaries about the task, underlining and marking with a 'D' those words which they looked up in the dictionaries.

Data collected in the whole study, therefore, consisted of translations of the texts, information extracted during the interviews, and interpretation of the underlining system and commentaries and notes students wrote on the task sheets, as will be explained below.

4.1.4.5. Data analysis (translation product)

Although some numerical data such as percentages of overall errors will be referred to in the text-level assessment, numerical statistics regarding errors will only be used in assessing individual language errors. This is because of the absence of any readily available authority for the immediate correction of text level errors so that they can be evaluated and calculated in a similar way to individual language errors. However, both individual language errors and text-level errors will be assessed qualitatively.

When analyzing the product data the following factors were investigated: which translation errors occurred, their severity, and the causes of the errors made (cf. Chapter One: 1.5. Aims and Research Questions).

As the data collected in Phase One was conducted in different circumstances to that in Phase Two, each was analyzed separately, but combined later, i.e. in this chapter data

from the three groups is presented combined, but notes on inter-group differences are made when relevant. The three sets of corpora are:

Group A. The twelve volunteers representing the three categories of six undergraduates, four post-graduate candidates and two novice translators who participated in Phase One.

Group B: The group of twelve postgraduate students who participated in Phase Two.

Group C: The two classes of fourth year undergraduates.

The reason each set of data was analyzed separately was to see how each group (undergraduates and post-graduates within Group A, and in Group B and C) differed in experiencing difficulties, or identifying problems when carrying out the task. Below, each type of data analysis (text translation, underlining, commentaries and notes and interviews) is discussed.

4.1.4.5.1. Text translating

The majority of the data was collected from the translation of the nineteen texts. Data analysis of text translation was based upon an analysis of the errors in the subjects' translations performed quantitatively and qualitatively (cf. Gile, 1994: 46-48 and Doorslaer, 1995).

During the assessment of students' translations, for assessing the translations quantitatively in terms of language-level problems, a system of counting errors was established on the basis of a categorization of errors (see below). Errors were identified, examined and categorized. That is, they were first located, then classified and logged under main categories and sub-categories and analyzed in terms of their

total score and averages per student. In terms of ranking, an error made by more students was counted as more prominent and consequently given a higher score, e.g. twenty students making the same error scores 20, one student making one error scores one.

With text-level problems, severity of the problems was measured against how many students failed to render the ST into an adequate TT in the area under investigation. The gravity of errors was measured in terms of the spread of the “damage”, e.g. how far the translation deviated from the original meaning.

4.1.4.5.2. Generating a categorization system

In translation assessment, the risk of reaching different results by different raters is predictably high (cf. Chapter Two, Section Two: Literature Review). In this study, for translation assessment to be accurate, a system has to be established.

While available assessment systems such as Campbell (1998: 138)⁵⁸, for example, could be used, a preliminary reading of students’ translations in the pilot studies indicated that a more sophisticated system would be needed for the categorization of errors. Accordingly it was decided that the system to be used in the assessment of the whole data should be generated from the data itself. The prototype for the classification system was the taxonomy set up in the researcher's case-study, Chapter Three. The model of categorization after being tested in the pilot studies was subsequently confirmed and extended through the process of investigating the types

⁵⁸ Campbell's system identifies four types of edit: False Start, Bracketed Alternative, Deletion, Partial Switch.

of errors in a sample of the main-study subjects' translations. Table 6 below shows the distinction between Individual Language Errors and Text-Level Errors.

TABLE (6): CATEGORIES OF TRANSLATION ERRORS

Categories of translation errors				
Language errors	Incorrect	Vocabulary	Polysemy	
			Divergence	
			Derivation	
			Technical terms	
			Proper nouns	
			Compounds	
			Collocations	
			Phrasal verbs	
			Fixed expressions	
		Grammar	Morphology	
			Prepositions	
			Tense	
			Articles (definite/indefinite)	
		Spelling	Invention	
			Morphological spelling	
			Dialect influence and hypercorrection	
			Slips	
		Addition	Addition of wrong information	
		Omission	Addition of stress	
			Omission of item	
		Inappropriate	Vocabulary	Omission of section
	Connotative meaning			
	Synonyms			
	Near synonyms			
	Word formation			
	Lexical voids			
	Grammar		Arabization	
			Word order	
			Passive	
			Negation	
	Addition		Conditionals	
			Double/alternative translations	
			Expansion	
			Omission	Omission of item
	Omission of section			
Text level errors	Rhetorical and stylistic devices			Metaphor and simile
				Repetition and parallelism
			Satire	
			Irony	
			Alliteration	
	Cohesion		Reference	
			Substitution	
			Ellipsis	
			Conjunctions	
			Theme and rheme issues	
			Paragraphing	
			Graphic/orthographic marks	
	Register and style			
Background knowledge				
Culture				

4.1.4.5.3. Categories for translation assessment: language errors

Categories for translation assessment with language errors come under two categories, 'Incorrect' and 'Inappropriate (cf. Table 6), the former incorporating errors in 'Vocabulary', 'Grammar', 'Spelling', 'Addition' and 'Omission'. The types of errors in this main category (Language Errors) include both mismatches between SL and TL item/s (deviation from ST meaning) and/or violation of TL norms (House 1977 and 1997, Sager 1989 and Hatim and Mason 1997). Along with many experts in Arabic, the researcher would endorse Brunette's (2000: 180), definition of TL norms as: "The rules and conventions of a language set out in authoritative works (e.g. grammar books, dictionaries of language difficulties, spelling standards, standardization notices, style guides, writing handbooks)".

Thus, under 'Vocabulary' come errors that deviate from the meaning of the ST in the choice of either a single lexical item or a combination of words: polysemy, divergence, derivation, technical terms, proper nouns, compounds, collocations, phrasal verbs and fixed expressions. Morphology, prepositions, tense and articles (definite and indefinite) are classified under the heading of 'Grammar', whether resulting from ST influence or inadequate TL skills. 'Spelling' includes the categories: invention, morphological spelling, dialect influence and hypercorrection and slips, 'Addition' includes the addition of wrong information and addition of stress. Under 'Omission', comes omission of an item or a section that results in loss of crucial information. Definitions and examples are given in the Results Section: see 4.2. below.

Under the second category ‘Inappropriate’ (see Table 6), come all errors that are simply incongruous either in the context, in terms of conformity to normal TL usage, or in terms of reflecting the ST style. Assessment here is largely a matter of convention more than absolute rules. For example, what makes a respondent opt for *مما يؤدي إلى تلف الفاكهة* *that leads to wasting the fruit* for the translation of “subsequently taint the fruit”, Text Eighteen, rather than *ونتيجة لذلك تفسد الفاكهة* *as a result of that the fruit is tainted*, is no more than the elegance of the former according to TL norms (see Hermans, 1999 and Toury, 2000).

The first sub-categories under ‘Inappropriate’ are erroneous choices of vocabulary including connotative meaning, synonyms, near synonyms, word formation lexical voids and Arabization.

Also under the ‘Inappropriate’ banner comes inappropriate ‘Grammar’, which includes errors at a morpho-syntactic level, namely word order, passive, negation and conditionals.

The third category is ‘Addition’, where students offer double/alternative meanings and expansion, which is similar to what Duff (1995) calls ‘over-translation’, i.e. saying something in more words than required for the meaning. Excluded, however, are:

Clarification: items intended to identify a preceded word that, culturally, is thought by the translator to need clarification, e.g. ‘polka’ *رقصة البولكا* *the polka dance*.

Explication: cases where Arabic tends to use explication as in the translation of “only a fraction of Botswana meat is used to feed its people ... the rest is exported” to (القليل فقط/النذر اليسير من لحوم بتسوانا يستخدم في إطعام شعبها. ... أما الباقي فيصدر إلى الخارج/ خارج)

البلاد *only a fraction of Botswana meat is used to feed its people ... the rest is exported abroad/outside the country.*

The fourth and final category under 'Inappropriate' is Omission, which denotes any unwarranted deletion of information. It includes omission of item and omission of section.

From the categorization descriptions at individual language error level a rater-guide (see Appendix 2) was set to be used in inter and intra-rater tests for standardization (i.e. so that different raters use it similarly), as described in the following two sub sections.

4.1.4.5.4. Inter-rater reliability test

Inter-rater reliability refers to the extent to which two or more individuals agree on their measurement of an item (Fink 1998: 112), so the more unanimous the agreement reached the more reliable the system of assessment will be, and thus the more valid are the results. In this study, for the purpose of standardization, the model for assessment was first tested by other raters who carried out the assessment on samples of the translations. This was done in two phases.

One rater was acquainted with the task of assessment and given a copy of a Rater Guide containing a description of each category, a sample of subjects' translations, and one version of a model translation for each text to be assessed. The rater would only specify the main category and its immediate sub-categories but not sub-sub-category, e.g. an error in grammar (misuse of morpheme: gender concord) is indicated as (Gr/m), i.e. Grammar/Morpheme, but the sub-sub category (Gender-Concord) is

not indicated⁵⁹. Disagreement on locating errors was noticed in the first session. From a total of errors amounting to 169, agreement was reached in locating only 94 errors, an agreement percentage of 56% (cf. Bowker, 2000:195-199 for difference between raters in identifying errors). This was overcome by a sequence of five consecutive sessions where the disagreement between the rater and the researcher was steadily reduced by discussing errors missed by either side and adjusting sub-category definitions until total agreement was reached. This rater-standardization process has shown that the results of the assessment of the data can be considered reliable since agreement between the raters eventually became complete. However, as a double check on the reliability issue, another test (the intra-reliability test) was carried out, as will be explained below.

4.1.4.5.5. Intra-rater reliability test

Intra-rater reliability refers to a single individual's consistency of measurement over time (Fink 1998: 112). In the present study, this process was undergone after the inter-rater reliability test and two months after the data was originally assessed, and errors were categorized by repeat-coding. In terms of locating errors, even though slightly more errors were located the second time, the rate of agreement was considered adequate: only 5 errors in 30 texts were previously missed and located in the intra-rater text. One error per six texts (each averaging 35 errors) was considered insignificant to enough to rule out repeat-coding all the texts. Comparison of the two codings showed a 100% rate of consistency in categorizing errors, which is much more important in this study than the location of errors.

⁵⁹ In the analysis of data only sub-sub- categories which weigh significantly will be discussed.

According to the inter and intra-reliability tests, the categorization system was (after some amendment), therefore, proven to be reliable for the actual analysis of the raw data of subjects' translation.

After the inter/intra rater reliability tests, the categorization system was further refined, though the actual low-level categories themselves did not change,⁶⁰ to frame the model which was used in data assessment in Section Two of this chapter.

4.1.4.5.6. Categories for translation assessment: text-level errors

Of course counting can only be applied to errors which can be signalled and isolated, such as those of Grammar, Vocabulary or Spelling, whereas errors that belong to Rhetorical and Stylistic Devices, Cohesion, Background Knowledge, Culture, Register and Style must be discussed in the context of the text as a whole. Whereas language errors were counted, therefore, text-level errors were assessed qualitatively.

To ensure reliability with text-level errors three professional translators participated in re-assessing samples of the translations qualitatively. Their input and comments on missing inter-sentence linkage, the omission of the cognate accusative (a rhetorical device in Arabic) and on incoherence at the level of discourse were invaluable.

It needs to be emphasized, however, that the two-dimension-divisions, which were made for the purpose of the analysis into small language errors (micro-analysis) and text-level discourse errors (macro-analysis), should not be seen as absolute. Rather than remaining entirely separate, the two types of errors often interact when being taken into account for the overall assessment of the quality of the translation, sub-

⁶⁰ i.e. the reliability test is still valid.

categories within either main category often overlapped. For example, the data collected revealed that long and/or combined grammatical structures, particularly those including difficult or unfamiliar vocabulary, are bound to become text-level problems. The reason is that such use of complicated syntactic structures, with ‘big’ or specialized words, has rhetorical and stylistic repercussions, and is not confined to specific text-types.

4.1.4.6. Data analysis (translation process)

Besides counting errors, their gravity (severity) was assessed. When ranking difficulty, students’ perception, as interpreted from their underlinings, commentaries and notes, and as expressed in the interviews was taken into consideration.

4.1.4.6.1. Analysis of underlining

In numerical terms, the more subjects who underlined the same item/s, the more generalizable was the difficulty.

4.1.4.6.2. Analysis of commentaries and notes

Analysis of commentaries and notes was qualitative and focused on three aspects about which subjects gave some remarks; the ST, the TT and dictionary use.

4.1.4.6.3. Analysis of interviews

Interview analysis took the form of informal tagging of what the subjects uttered. For example, expressions like “I am hesitant” or “I am not happy/ convinced/ satisfied/ sure”, about the translation, were uttered by almost everyone at some point, all taken to indicate that the subject, judged their translation negatively. Similarly, repeated

utterances by the subjects like “I was confused” were understood to mean that they found it difficult to choose between alternatives.

This section of the study was devoted to discussing the plan for carrying out the multi-subject study, collecting the data, designing a system of analysis and assessing the data.

4.2. Results and Findings

4.2.0. Introduction

In the previous section, experiment design, data collection and data analysis were discussed; here the results of the multi-subject study are presented both quantitatively and qualitatively. Error counts are presented numerically and in averages, followed by a detailed discussion based on qualitative analysis of a sample of errors from each category, inclusive of its immediate sub-categories and sub-sub categories. Language errors comprise 'Vocabulary', 'Grammar', 'Spelling', 'Addition' and 'Omission'. Text level errors comprise 'Rhetorical and Stylistic Devices', 'Cohesion', 'Register and Style', 'Background knowledge' and 'Culture'. Information collected during the interviews and from subjects' underlining, commentaries and notes, which all add a significant dimension to the numeric data, will be used as a back up to what we read from the translation data.

4.2.1. Data assessment

The data will be assessed as to how far the translation reflects two aspects, one in regard to the ST message and the other to conformity of the TL conventions.

4.2.1.1. Language errors

Data here is presented both quantitatively (numerically) and qualitatively (exemplified by illustrations of the types of errors made by the subjects). Language errors in Vocabulary, Grammar, Addition and Omission inclusive of their sub-categories (see table 6) are classified as either 'Incorrect' or 'Inappropriate'. Errors in spelling, however, can only be wrong, i.e. incorrect. While both categories (Incorrect

and Inappropriate) will be discussed together below, an indication will be made as to whether the errors are considered incorrect (unacceptable) or inappropriate (there is a better alternative).⁶¹

Table 7 below shows the average of the errors per **category** (Incorrect and Inappropriate) for all of the texts translated by all the students.

TABLE (7): TABLE OF AVERAGE ERRORS PER TEXT PER CATEGORY (ALL SUBJECTS COMBINED)

	CATEGORIES								
	Incorrect					Inappropriate			
	Gr.	V.	Spl.	Add.	Om.	Gr.	V.	Add.	Om.
Av. Score	1.55	7.97	0.8	.71	1.64	2.00	0.35	1.68	.33
Av. total score	12.67					4.36			

What is interesting about the average number of errors shown by the table above is that the average errors' count in 'Incorrect' (12. 67) is far more than in 'Inappropriate' (4.36), almost triple. This result is believed to be caused by the number of incorrect vocabulary errors in the sample, not to be an artefact of the categorization system.

Furthermore, at the level of the sub-categories, the total average errors in Vocabulary (8.32) (7.97, Incorrect plus 0.35, Inappropriate) is far more than any other category. Second come errors in Grammar (total 3.55: 1.55, Incorrect plus 2.00 Inappropriate). The predominance of lexical errors (see Chapter Five: Discussion, for other similar findings) can be attributed to the fact that vocabulary items represent the core element around which the whole text revolves. They represent problems related to both the ST and the TT. However, the errors of grammar classified above are largely related to the TT, though ST interference, particularly with regard to errors in word order, remains a factor.

⁶¹ Incorrect items/sections will be indicated by (*) and inappropriate items/sections will be indicated by (!). ! = dubious.

This result correlates with students' underlining of difficult grammatical structures and vocabulary items shown in Table 8 below.

TABLE (8): STUDENTS' UNDERLINING OF DIFFICULT GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES & VOCABULARY(SINGLE AND DOUBLE UNDERLINING COMBINED)

Total underlining per main category	
Vocabulary	Grammar
1076	117

Although the proportion between Vocabulary (1076) and Grammar (117) is not dissimilar to the error ratio, it must be remembered that a lot of underlined grammatical structures, such as passive, were most likely underlined because they also include difficult vocabulary. For example, the stretch “ ...have been particularly hard hit just after they thought their teething problems had been sorted out”, Text Four, was double underlined by four students. The reason is most likely the presence of the two passive forms on the one hand, and the presence of ‘hard hit’, ‘teething problems’ and ‘sorted out’ which were double underlined by other students separately from other elements in the sentence – on the other hand. This shows that problems are often multi-dimensional – especially the severe ones.

As for Addition and Omission, in numeric terms total Addition errors (2.39) record a slightly higher score than Omission (1.97). This tells us that the students did make an effort to render the ST into a similar-length TT when they could, though they opted slightly more often for addition to make their translation make sense through over-elaboration of what they interpret from the ST. What is interesting, however, is that Incorrect errors in Omission (1.64) are far more than the Inappropriate errors (0.33) in Omission. The fact that they opted for omission as a strategy of circumventing a problem by ignoring the problematic item/s often led to the deletion of key meaning elements present in the ST. Contrary to the errors in Omission, errors in Addition

(Incorrect) scoring (0.71) are far less than the errors in Inappropriate (1.68); this is a case of over-elaboration, a less-than-ideal practice, but at the same time it is not as “harmful” as deletion.

Understandably, the lowest score was in errors in Spelling (0.8) which are also a TT problem. As Arabic is largely phonemic in nature, one would expect university-educated users to make relatively few errors, if at all. However, errors in spelling tend to be confined to certain types, as the qualitative analysis of data below shows, which would probably make it easier for any preventative or remedial program (see Chapter Six: Conclusion). Moreover, errors in TT production might not hinder communication but still severely undermine the acceptability of the TT, particularly when there are too many of them.

Below, errors in the individual language items, main categories and their immediate sub-categories, illustrated with examples are discussed.

4.2.1.1.1. Vocabulary

Under this category come errors of polysemy, divergence, derivation, technical terms, proper nouns, compounds, collocations, phrasal verbs, fixed expressions, connotative meaning, synonyms, near synonyms, word formation, lexical voids and Arabization (see Table 6).

Lexical items, whether individually or in combination, are classified as incorrect when they deviate significantly from the ST meaning. They are inappropriate when they are not clearly incorrect at the level of meaning, but also “not right”, “odd” in the context, or are not the most appropriate solution.

Concern about vocabulary was shared by all those interviewed. When information from interviews was transcribed and grouped under their relevant categories, vocabulary took comparatively much more space than any other category. Subjects showed their frustration particularly when words had more than one meaning, even though "co-text he ps" was said explicitly by at least one subject.

Words that could not be found in the dictionary were quite frustrating for the respondents. For example, the utterance "sorry, I did not find some of the words in the dictionary" is often written on the task sheet and expressed in the interviews. Not being able to find the word in the dictionary often led to the respondent abandoning the translation of the rest of the text, e.g. "I did not finish the translation because I did not find the word 'psychodrama' in the dictionary". This is a variable that no doubt interferes with the assessment of the difficulty of other elements in the text, when insoluble vocabulary problems could have severe knock-on effects on the wider text, causing other errors.

Dictionary use, in fact, proved to be a major factor in the overall patterns of errors in the subjects' translations. When subjects (mainly the fourth year undergraduate students) scribbled the meaning of the words they looked up in the dictionary in Arabic on the task sheet, it appeared that a good number of the "meanings" of the word/s concerned were in fact erroneous. For example, one subject looked up thirteen of the twenty-one content words in Text Five in the dictionary, but seven out of thirteen were incorrect as used in the text. In fact, because the wrong meaning of the words was chosen, Text Five was too distorted to be evaluated at any level, i.e. the text as a whole made no sense. On the same sheet the subject looked up twelve of the

twenty-five words and gave the incorrect meaning for five of the words.⁶² Writing the meaning of the words in English above those looked up in the dictionary was a feature of the postgraduate students' task sheets. A sensitivity toward the use of the dictionary and particularly the bilingual dictionary among more advanced students (post-graduates) was also felt in remarks such as "I tried not to use the dictionary as much as I could" and "I used an English/English dictionary, Collins", which were made without being requested to provide information about their use of the dictionary. Time spent on searching in the dictionary also seemed to be a concern among both groups. One subject wrote that "to find the meaning of the word in the dictionary takes twenty-five to thirty-five seconds". This indicates impatience on the part of the subjects, which may have led to inadequate use of the dictionary and hence more errors.

Generally, the underlining of vocabulary items can be classified in three categories: single words, compounds, and multiple items, some of which include fixed expressions. For illustration, Table 9 below shows the distribution of students' underlinings and the relative difficulty of each category (shown by single underlining as opposed to double underlining).

TABLE (9): UNDERLINING OF DIFFICULT VOCABULARY

Underlinings: main/sub categories	Vocabulary					
	Individual Items		Compounds		Multiple Items	
	Single	Double	Single	Double	Single	Double
	887	19	84	24	33	29
Total per sub-category	906		108		62	
Total per main category	1076					

A close look at Table 10 shows that underlinings of Individual Items, being the majority in any text, were far more than underlinings of Compounds and Multiple

⁶² Words written in different meanings one of which is correct as used in the text were not counted.

Items (e.g. fixed expressions). However, double underlining (indicating very difficult) of Compounds and Multiple Items separately is relatively more than that of Individual Items.

Interestingly, underlining included not only unfamiliar, context-bound vocabulary, but also relatively common vocabulary items found in the dictionary which do not pose ambiguity in the context, as Table 10 below shows. The latter, however, was more frequent in the translations of the weaker undergraduate students.

TABLE (10): UNDERLINING OF DIFFICULT VOCABULARY

Nouns				Adjectives				Verbs				Adverb			
Item	Single	Double	No. of texts	Item	Single	Double	No. of texts	Item	Single	Double	No. of texts	Item	Single	Double	No. of texts
psychodrama	12	6	26	Grumpy	4	2	10	Choreograph	5	2	11	miraculously	5		11
mortgage	7		14	hard hit	5	1	32	Accommodate	2	1	26				
diversion	6		14	Uphill	4	2	32	Boast	2		12				
contemplation	5		14	Therapeutic	3		26	Secured	2		36				
temperament	5		32	Slack	3	1	20	Embodied	2		36				
auditorium	4		26	Flexible	3		28	Employ	1		26				
delegate	4		26	Sliding	3	2	26	Illustrate	1		26				
script	4		26	Dividing	3		26	Recount	1		28				
facets	4		36	Unprecedented	3		28	Reduce	1		28				
film	4		36	Barbarous	2		8	Reveal	1		36				
impresario	3	1	11	Eminent	2		8	Choke	1		36				
polka	3		11	Lacquered	2		11	Create	1		36				
blackcurrants	3		11	Volatile	2	1	14	Survive	1		36				
corporation	3		12	Stiff	2		20	Escape	1		36				
miracle	3		12	Uncomfortable	2		20								
flagship	3		12	Rear	2		26								
terminus	3		28	Toxic	2		36								
contacts	3		28	Uneven	2		28								
tiles	3		28	Exotic	1		8								
repayments	3		32	Spoiling	1		8								
efficiency	3		36	Taint	1		11								
competitor	2		36	Prime	1		12								
antiquarian	2		13	Remote	1		14								
abattoir	2		12	Demanding	1		14								
circus	2		11	Alternative	1	1	36								
scenes	2		26	Tough	1		36								
application	2		28	Burning	1		36								
celebrity	2		28												
sums	2		32												
dents	1		12												
rim	1		12												
chefs	1		12												
diversion	1		14												
development	1		26												
opportunity	1		26												
concrete	1		28												
improvements	1		32												
wit	1		36												
fumes	1		36												

As the table above shows, underlining of nouns (excluding proper nouns) was the highest, almost twice the amount of underlining of adjectives and triple the amount of underlining verbs, maybe because there are more nouns in language than adjectives or verbs. However, adjectives get the highest average of double underlining (very difficult). The reason could be that the adjectives underlined include adjectives that are recognizably difficult to handle as those formed of gerund (e.g. sliding) and

adjectives in the form of participle (e.g. unprecedented) as well as adjectives used idiomatically (e.g. hard hit).

If we take, say, the first five in each column (except adverbs), we find the difficulty could be ascribed to different reasons. For example with regard to nouns, 'psychodrama' is a technical term, 'contemplation', 'diversion', and 'temperament' are literary words, while the three items are combined together into one phrase makes them harder to translate by reducing guessing from the context, 'mortgage' is culturally bound. As for adjectives, 'grumpy' is odd in the context, i.e. "negative" in a "positive" context, 'hard hit and uphill' are used idiomatically, 'therapeutic' derives from an unfamiliar noun "therapy" and "slack" is in the middle of multiple modifiers⁶³, one of which is a compound while the adjective does not have an exact Arabic meaning that fits the context in which it is used in Text Seven. As for the verbs 'choreograph', 'accommodate', 'boast', 'secured' and 'embodied', which were the most looked up verbs in the dictionary as indicated in the task sheets by writing "D" at the top of the word, for those who underlined them the dictionary does not seem to have helped much to capture the meaning as used in the context. One general conclusion that can be drawn from this is that the uncommon, technical and idiomatic types of words seem to present the most difficulties.

Below, errors in each category of Vocabulary are discussed in some detail and illustrated with examples from subjects' translations.

⁶³ "... only long enough to shake his hand-a damp, slack, *small-boned hand*", Paul Theroux: The London Embassy, Text Seven.

Incorrect vocabulary choice

Incorrect vocabulary choice includes Polysemy, Divergence, Derivation, Technical Terms, Proper Nouns, Compounds, Collocations, Phrasal Verbs, and Fixed Expressions.

A main source of error in the subjects' translations was their tendency to translate literally. Errors resulted from failure to choose the right word from the right semantic field (Polysemy, Divergence and Derivation) represented by far the highest frequency (6.53 out of the 7.97). Errors of this type quite often resulted in deviation of the meaning from the ST and led to distortion of the meaning in the TT. The errors found in all of the other Vocabulary sub-categories average below 1.00; Compounds, Collocations, Phrasal verbs and Fixed Expressions combined representing 0.60 and proper nouns 0.74.

Such a high number of errors in Incorrect Vocabulary might be due to the fact that it is a large category itself, incorporating a range of sub-categories with which students often have problems and opt for the most frequent meaning or the first meaning the dictionary offers. In theory, almost all those interviewed agreed that opting for the immediate meaning (i.e. most frequent or first in the dictionary) is risky and might result in a flawed translation. One subject who claimed she had been training for translation for six months while studying at the university said, "I always look for the hidden meaning, this is what I learnt in the office while training". In practice, however, the data, or at least a high proportion of it, indicated a strong tendency toward opting for the immediate meaning or the literal meaning and not what the word means in the context, as demonstrated by examples in the following sub-sub-categories.

Polysemy

Some of the subjects fell into the trap of selecting the most common use of the word, so that when a word has more than one meaning, the wrong one is chosen. One cause of errors of this kind appears to be that subjects focused on the word as a unit of translation rather than viewing it in connection with other elements in the co-text, e.g. translating 'bank' ضفة in "living in a small hotel on the left bank in Paris, ...Tito gained ...", Text Ten, in the financial sense as مصرف*.

Divergence

This type of error occurs as a result of two related meanings being expressed by one word in English but in two words in Arabic, e.g. 'fire' نار and حريق⁶⁴. While the correct equivalent to 'fire' in 'fire-resistant', Text Five, is حريق, many opted for the wrong equivalent مقاومة للنار*. An error like this also tells us about the tendency among subjects to select the most immediate meaning (uppermost in mind or first in dictionary) unconscious of the difference the selection of one item and not the other makes. Another example is when students use one equivalent in the TT without realizing it does not fit in the context, e.g. both 'cans' and 'tins' in Text Eighteen should be translated to علب. Some students erroneously translated it to معلبات cans/tins (filled with processed food) and two students translated it to صفائح sheet of metal.

Derivation

The example of using معلبات (cans filled with products and ready for use) instead of علب (empty cans) discussed above shows how the students concerned failed to realise the difference in meaning between two words in Arabic that derive from the same

⁶⁴ One word in English "fire" has two meanings in Arabic نار for heat and حريق destructive fire.

root. In such cases, subjects who made errors seem to have become confused when attempting to choose the right word from alternatives. Another example in this area shows subjects' inability to distinguish between the relevant transitive and intransitive verbs, e.g. 'choke' in "passengers are blinded before they choke on the fumes", Text Six, should be يختنق not يخنق* *strangle*, as in some translations, and 'uncomfortable' in "he looked uncomfortable in this stiff and slightly ill-fitting suit ...", Text Seven, is غير مرتاح not غير مريح*. This again raises the question of competence in the TL (cf. Chapter Five: Discussion).

Technical terms

The two texts from the New Scientist (Text Six and Seven) did not include extremely difficult or peculiar technical terms. However, the compound words, particularly in Text Six (e.g. sound-absorbing, oil-resistant, fire-resistant), did prove difficult and resulted in errors in a number of students' translations (see compounds below). As for unfamiliar technical terms, students did not have problems with words found in the dictionary, e.g. 'lacquer' in "cans should be rinsed in clean water before use ... but should not be dried with a cloth as this might scratch the lacquer", Text Nineteen, as all students opted for transliteration as in the dictionary. With terms not found in the dictionary, faulty analysis of the meaning of a new word or false etymology, e.g. 'psychodrama' الإستطباب النفسي* instead of transliteration السيكدراما or paraphrasing العلاج بواسطة دراما المسرح led to serious problems that resulted not only in giving the wrong translation of the term itself, but often abandoning the translation of the remaining text. Eight texts of the thirteen abandoned were Text Four which included 'psychodrama' and the only two abandoned by post-graduates among the eight were the two texts that included the mentioned term. Even those who tried translating Text

Four showed their frustration for not being able to translate it, as the word is not in the dictionary. Looking at students' underlining of difficult vocabulary (Table 10) above, we find the word 'psychodrama' as a technical term is at the top of the scale of difficulty (eighteen out of the twenty six who translated Text 2 underlined the word 'psychodrama' as being difficult). Six out of the eighteen double underlined it as being very difficult, while none of the twenty-six got it right in translation, including those who did not underline it. As revealed in the interviews, the reason was the inability to find an equivalent for the term. The problem seems to be one of unclear etymology, where etymology does not point to meaning, contrary to 'oil-resistance', for example.

Proper nouns

Twelve out of the nineteen texts included at least one proper noun. The maximum was five per text, including adjectives derived from proper nouns such as 'European' or 'British'. That means that more than half of the texts included proper nouns, an indication of just how often one encounters names in real practice.

One important thing to which subjects seem to have paid attention is the capitalization of words, e.g. "the word 'Tito' is confusing, it starts with a capital letter, it must be a name", one subject wrote down on the task sheet. They used it as an indication that the word is a proper noun, hence it is unlikely to be found in the dictionary, which led to errors, e.g. "Latin Quarter starts with a capital letter, we cannot translate it; it is a name," one subject said in the interview.

Table 11 below illustrates the sort of errors students made when translating proper nouns. The table includes errors that involved change of meaning in the TT and not only those of mere spelling.

TABLE (11): ERRORS IN PROPER NOUNS.

Errors in proper nouns				
Text	ST	Erroneous Translation	Back Translation	Correct version
8	The Latin Quarter'	الربع اللاتيني	The Latin quarter	الحي اللاتيني
		المربع اللاتيني	The Latin square	
13	Cana of Galilee	خان الخليلي	Khan Al Khalili	قانا بالجليل
		حانة كانا فيلي	Canaville bar	
9	Austerlitz	أوستراليا	Australia	أوسترلitz
1	Caledonian	أوسكتلندي	Scot	كاليدونيا
5	Moscow	المكسيك	Mexico	موسكو

Although 'Latin Quarter' is found in the dictionary as الحي اللاتيني, some students relied on guessing and translated it as المربع اللاتيني *Latin square*. Those who sought for it in the dictionary as two separate words relied on the first dictionary meaning and erroneously translated the "common" elements of the word as الربع اللاتيني *the Latin* 1/4.

Among the names of places that seem to have caused a great difficulty to almost all of the subjects is 'Cana of Galilee'; a combination of the assumption that names of places are not usually found in ordinary dictionaries and background knowledge. Although it is in an Arabic speaking country, eleven out of twelve students who translated the text got 'Cana of Galilee' wrong. While some transliterated it, others left it in its English form; some, presumably influenced by the general Middle-Eastern and sales context of the text, confused it with the tourist market in Cairo, and translated it as خان الخليلي * *Khan Al Khalili*.

In fact, only the most familiar proper nouns (e.g. USA, England, Paris and Africa) caused no problems, while others proved to be highly problematic to the

overwhelming majority of the subjects. A main cause of the problem seems to be confusing similar sounding names with other, e.g. 'Austerlitz' being confused with 'Australia', though the context should have helped in telling that it is in Paris. 'Moscow' was replaced with 'Mexico' because of the similarity of sounds. While خان الخليلي *Khan El-Khalili* for 'Cana of Galilee' could be a good guessing strategy as there is no standard English translation of the sound أستراليا *Australia* for 'Austerlitz' and مكسيك *Mexico* for 'Moscow' are much less logical in both textual context and phonetic motivation.

Other place names, however, resulted in errors in spelling only, and - in contrast to the above cases - these did not cause any semantic problems. For example, as a brand name 'Rolex' was transliterated by five subjects as *رولاكس instead of رولكس, the standard equivalent in Arabic.

Compounds

One problem that arose from the use of compounds in the ST, in the translations of the majority of the subjects, was a tendency to retain the ST structure in the translation all the time, and not only when appropriate in the TT context. Within compound forms in English, certain elements in particular seem to have caused problems. In "the tiles are oil-resistant, fire-resistant", Text Five, for example, "resistant" is the word that seemed to have created the problem. Among the translations where the word "resistant" sounds forced on the Arabic translation is رقائق مقاومة للزيت ومقاومة للحرائق *tiles, resistant to oil and resistant to fire*. Here, the more appropriate translation would be رقائق مقاومة للزيت وغير قابلة للاشتعال *tiles are oil-resistant and are not susceptible to burning*.

TABLE (12): UNDERLINING OF DIFFICULT COMPOUNDS PER TEXT.

Compounds	Single	Double	No. of texts translated
a temperament ill- adjusted to contemplation	7	5	14
Two-volume, leather-bound...French poetry	5	3	13
a damp, slack small-boned hand	10	2	20
rose-growing, dog-loving, window-washing, church-going, law-abiding, library-using, tea-drinking	6	2	10
conveyer-belt efficiency	4	3	12
in-flight magazine	4	2	12
sound-observing tiles	6	2	28
uneven concrete surfaces	5	2	28
fire resistant	3		28
oil-resistant	3		28
government-owned...	3		12
machine-like efficiency	6	5	36
evening dress	4		20
ill-fitting suit	3	1	20
a filter mask	7		36
junk shop	2		13
smoke-hood	4		36
permanent guest list	2		20
left wing	1		20

As Table 12 above shows, almost all compounds were underlined as being difficult; some were double underlined by varying numbers of subjects. The difficulty of compounds often lies in the lengthy grammatical structure, usually constituting strings of adjectives, as many of those underlined happened to be in long complicated stretches of language. For example, six out of ten who translated Text Sixteen underlined the whole string of modifiers and compounds in the text (four single underlining and two double underlining), and twelve out of the twenty who translated Text Seven underlined the phrase ‘a damp, slack small-boned hand’ (ten double underlining and two single underlining).

In the commentaries, compounds were among those elements that gained subjects’ attention. For example, a comment like “I like a lot the series of compound words in the text” by the subject in reference to “... not just coastal *seaside holiday* retirement

England, but secretive, rose-growing, dog-loving, window-washing, church-going, law-abiding, grumpy, library-using, tea-drinking”, Text Sixteen, shows the appreciation of the style of the ST. This, however, does not mean that the subject would find compounds in the above section easy to transfer to the TT. In fact, this subject underlined the whole section as being difficult, though in the translation there is an obvious effort to produce a decent translation that handles the difficulty of using a string of compounds in the ST by using genitives in the TT in place of compounds in the ST, i.e. غرس الورود، وحب الكلاب، وغسل النوافذ، وارتياح الكنائس والمكتبات، واحترام القانون، وحب شرب الشاي... *planting of roses, love of dogs, washing of windows, going to churches and libraries, respect of law and loving drinking of tea.*

The fact that compounds are problematic was also mentioned in the interviews.

Among the comments were the following:

“Ill-fitting” is problematic; it has no equivalent in Arabic.

“Ill-fitting” is not in the dictionary.

“Ill” by itself is confusing but I used common sense to guess the meaning.

“Small-boned” is problematic and “smoke hood” is clear in English but difficult to put it in Arabic.

Collocations

Students did not seem to have a particular difficulty in handling ST collocations. This could be a result of the fact that, contrary to compounds, STs did not include many collocations whose meaning was not transparent. However, some students’ translations raise the issue of faulty collocations in the TT when the two TT words do

not usually collocate together in the TL. For example, *الواجهة الخلفية as used by some for the translation of ‘at the rear of...’ in “this development will provide an opportunity⁶⁵ to build a new entrance at the rear of the Caledonian Hotel”, Text One, not only involves redundant addition but it also collocates two words that contrast in meaning, i.e. واجهة is in “front”, الخلفية is “back”; خلف by itself will do. On other occasions, when a phrase was opted for, students were not too careful about which words collocated together, e.g. فرصة for “opportunity” collocates with the verb تسنح (intransitive) and تمنح (transitive), i.e. (opportunity) *is available* and (opportunity) *is provided*, respectively, but not *يزود *supply*. Another alternative in this context, however, would have been to discard the phrasal “provide an opportunity” altogether and use the single verb يتيح *let* or يسمح *allow*, i.e. يتيح هذا التطوير بناء / يسمح هذا التطوير ببناء. مدخل خلفي بفندق كاليدونيا.

Another type of error in this category was when students opted for “redoubling” a two-synonym phrase whose use is constrained by that to which it refers. For example, the translation of ‘difficult’ in “study conditions can sometimes be difficult for you as well”, Text Twelve, *ليست بالأمر الهين واليسير, is wrong. هين and يسير are two synonyms usually used together to mean “easy”, with negative ليس/ت they indicate the opposite, i.e. “not easy”. In Arabic الهين واليسير can be used with “study” but not “conditions”. The word that refers to ‘difficult’ in connection to ‘conditions’ here would simply be صعبة in Arabic, i.e. قد تكون ظروف الدراسة صعبة, *the conditions of study could be difficult*.

⁶⁵ “Provide opportunity” was underlined by 6 subjects.

Phrasal verbs

Two different issues were raised by information extracted from subjects concerning the difficulties they confronted in translating phrasal verbs:

The first is related to the dictionary, e.g. “‘sort out’ is not in the dictionary, I only know ‘sort’”, one subject said.

A second problem is when a phrasal verb like “picked up” has different meanings in different contexts. ‘Picked up’ in “only the other evening I picked up Bertrand Russell”, Text Ten, was apparently more problematic than in “strong smells, which may be picked up by the lacquer”, Text Eighteen. This was revealed in the written data, and further stressed in the interviews, e.g. “‘picked up’ is confusing, I know it when something falls down and you pick it up. I guessed the meaning in the text but am still not happy with the translation”. This implies that when meanings are more distant from the literal meaning of the elements, it would be harder to understand for the subjects.

Fixed expressions

When subjects failed to realise that a fixed expression had been used idiomatically in the ST, they tended to translate it literally, treating the components of the expression individually and not as a whole unit. Table 13 below shows single and double underlining of fixed expressions by subjects:

TABLE (13): UNDERLINING OF FIXED EXPRESSIONS

Expressions	Single	Double	No. of Texts
What's it all about?	6	9	28
I've got an eye	6	7	28
Teething problems	6	8	32
Out of date	5	2	20
To my mind	3	2	28
I get hold of the wrong end of the stick	2	1	15
Practice does make perfect	5		36

Underlining by subjects and the actual data suggests that postgraduates are more capable than undergraduates of identifying clusters of words as being fixed expressions. For example, in the data collected from fourth year undergraduates the word 'teething' is underlined as separate from 'problems'. However, the expression 'teething problems' itself resulted in errors for participants from all groups including postgraduates, who underlined it as one unit. A high proportion of those who realised it being an expression either got it wrong (مشاكل الأسنان * *problems of teeth*) or did not translate it, which means that identifying an idiom does not assume the ability to translate it.

However, underlining items does not always lead to unsuccessful translation, and with regard to fixed expressions quite a high proportion of those who did not underline the expression produced translations which were erroneous.

Failure to realise that fixed expressions do not necessarily have to follow grammar rules worked adversely for students when interpreting fixed expressions, as in the case of 'perfect' in "practice makes perfect", Text Three. In the interview one subject questioned whether "perfect" in the expression is a noun or an adjective. This could be an indication that the subject did not realise that the word is part of a fixed expression, yet the translation she provided did result in what we might call a fixed expression. The translation التدریب یصنع الجسم السليم * *practice makes healthy body*, opted

for by a different student, tells us that when she translated the English expression, she thought of the Arabic expression العقل السليم في الجسم السليم *a healthy mind in a healthy body*.

Influenced at times by the use of idiomatic language in the ST, some subjects unsuccessfully tried to find an equivalent idiomatic expression in the TL. On other occasions, the ST did not use idiomatic expressions, but presumably in an attempt to enhance the texture of the TT, the subjects used idiomatic expressions that occasionally resulted in errors. For example, while لا يشق لها غبار *unsurpassable, unequalled, unrivaled* for the translation of “very tough competitor indeed”, Text Three, opted for by one post-graduate student, enhanced the TT with a literary expression, رأساً على عقب “*topsy-turvy*”, which many students opted for in the translation of ‘turned upside down’ in “store empty cans upside down in a dry place”, Text Eighteen, is not appropriate. While in English the expression “upside down” is used with some flexibility, in Arabic رأساً على عقب can only appear in restricted contexts, usually with abstract nouns (see section concerning ‘Register’ below; مقلوبة *turned* is the correct translation. Even among those who translated it to مقلوبة, a number of them also inserted رأساً على عقب too, i.e. مقلوبة رأساً على عقب.

Inappropriate vocabulary choice

Inappropriate vocabulary refers to items that are not totally wrong but other available alternatives are preferable, but the translation should not be seen as acceptable, e.g. يهرب *leave* for ‘escape’ in “passengers cannot see to escape”, Text Six, instead of يهرب. With regard to severity, Inappropriate vocabulary is considered less severe than Incorrect vocabulary because, with the former, meaning can still be traced. An example of this is in the preference for a couplet over a word in the translation of

'fraction' in "only a fraction of Botswana's beef is used to feed its own people", Text Fourteen. قليل *little* might seem superficially acceptable, but as a 'fraction' is significantly less than merely "little", النذر اليسير is both stylistically more idiomatic and more accurate.

Inappropriate vocabulary choice includes the following categories: Connotative Meaning, Synonyms, Near Synonyms, Word Formation, Lexical Voids and Arabization.

Connotative Meaning

An example of errors of this type can be found in the translation of 'argument', in "I do not think I was ever so desperate in my life: no books, no radio, no argument, no pictures, no news", Text Eleven, which a number of the subjects translated literally. Their translations ranged between مناقشة! مجادلة! and مشاطرة! or محاجة! *discussion, wrangling expostulation*, which all almost connote 'dispute' while the author of the text here seems to use the non-figurative meaning of 'logical discussion'. In the text, the word "argument" seems to mean no more than the talk that the author was longing for in confinement, while feeling lonely. Even among those who seem to have assumed such a meaning, many still inserted the literal meaning together with the contextual meaning, e.g. لا حديث أو نقاش *no talk or argument* (cf. 3.2.1.1.2.). This example here illustrates the extent of influence that the literal meaning has on the translator over the connotative meaning.

Synonyms

Classifying errors under this category of Vocabulary/Inappropriate depended on whether or not a more satisfactory alternative existed than that when the students had opted for, though the given equivalent was not wrong per se.

Most students' errors were in the inappropriate choice of TL synonym - like in the choice of the verb أعرف! for 'I know' in "I know that Rolex have been making watches for a long time", Text three, instead of أعلم. أعرف and أعلم are given similar meanings in the Hans Wehr Arabic English Dictionary, but in such contexts أعلم is normally used. Likewise at the level of a phrase, in the case of يروي! to *narrate*, for the translation of 'recount' in "my husband T. S. Eliot, loved to recount ...", Text Ten, for which many students opted instead of يعيد سر. يروي is not wrong, but يعيد سرد expresses the repetition in the action of telling the story over and over again.

Near-synonyms

Some near-synonyms do not affect the text to the extent that they can be considered wrong, as in the case of translating 'the author' in "the author is stuck in a remote hotel in E. Africa", Text Eleven, to الكاتب! *the writer* instead of المؤلف. Others do carry slightly or significantly different meaning, e.g. the nearest translation to 'escape' in the context "passengers cannot see to escape", Text Six, among the five translations provided by the subjects is هرب or هروب which are the closest to the ST word. Less acceptable is فرار! *fleeing*, while مغادرة* *leaving* is too weak for the situation and إفلات* *slipin away* is incorrect for the context. What we can interpret from these kinds of errors is that the subjects failed to weigh the ST items against context or equivalents in the TL.

The problem with other near-synonyms is that they may carry a slight extra meaning that makes them unacceptable as a translation of the original. As can be seen in translating ‘bird’ in “otherwise you are judged an exotic and barbarous bird”, Text Nineteen, as عصفور¹ *Sparrow* is not only an inexact equivalent, but it also carries the wrong connotation in the context, i.e. ‘barbarous bird’ is negative, ‘sparrow’ is positive: small, normal and harmless.

In other cases the semantic shift is slighter but still significant, e.g. ‘seats’ are مقاعد not كراسي *chairs*, ‘property’ is عقارات not ممتلكات *possessions* and ‘guest list’ is قائمة المدعوين rather than لائحة المدعوين*, while لائحة has the meaning of ‘agenda’. What these examples of students’ errors tell us is that students lack precision in their search for equivalent terms.

On the stylistic continuum students sometimes chose less than succinct words or phrases in the TT. These choices did not match the tone of the original or the context, and students showed an awareness of this issue in the interviews. For example one subject said, “أثبتت وجودها” is not an exact equivalent for secured her place, “أثبتت وجودها” is stronger”, this apparently means either high-sounding or even pompous. The examples given in Table 14 below are amongst the items considered erroneous in this context.

TABLE (14): ERRORS INVOLVING EXCESSIVELY “HIGH” OR “LOW” STYLE.

High sounding errors			
Text	ST	Erroneous translation	Amended translation
9	Morning	صبيحة	صباح
14	Lies	تتربع <i>to sit cross legged</i> (metaphorically)	تقع
14	Feed	سد رمق <i>to allay hunger</i>	يطعم
14	everyday	مع بزوغ فجر كل يوم جديد with the break forth of dawn of every new day مع إطلالة كل يوم جديد with the emergence of every new day	يوميًا
14	Chefs	طباخين	طهاة

Electing to raise the formality/ literariness of the word or phrase in contexts where the ST uses a neutral form is a tendency which, in some translations, led to the inserted item/expression sounding out of place. An example of the opposite is translating ‘chefs’ as طباخين! cooks instead of طهاة, this last example, however, was much less frequent than the four previous ones shown by the examples in Table 14 above.

Word Formation

The preference for one form of a word over another can make a difference. With regard to alternative forms of the same word, there seems to be a tendency among students to use more common forms than literary forms. Of course, this could be due to the fact that they only know the forms they opted for, e.g. متقلب but not قلب for the translation of ‘restless’ and ‘volatile’, Text Eleven, and جدران but not جدر for ‘walls’, Text One. However, while the choice between these alternatives is a matter of style, in the case of أفيل instead of فيلة for the translation of ‘elephants’, Text Fifteen, the matter is grammatical preference in the plural formation in Arabic.

Lexical voids

As for the two examples of lexical voids the texts happened to include, all of the students translated 'couples' as أزواج with some reservation, but they failed to understand 'tea for tea', when the second 'tea' is referring to the meal where tea is drunk. Those who were alert to the problem offered translations of which some could be said to accurately convey the meaning of the original but with a cultural shift, e.g. شاي مع وجبة العصر *tea with the Asr⁶⁶ meal*. Some opted for omission because of the unavailability of an equivalent or because they thought it was a misprint, as revealed in the interviews. One possible solution to handle lexical voids, clarifying things by a footnote, was not used by any subjects.

Arabization

Words that have equivalents in Arabic which students only transcribed or retained in their English forms, despite the Arabic form being more appropriate in the genre in question, were considered inappropriate.⁶⁷

Subjects, in fact, who were directly asked about this issue in the interviews, six in all, seemed not to have a fixed attitude in this area. Their responses as to whether we should Arabize words or not was that "we use an Arabic equivalent whenever one exists, otherwise we use what is familiar to the reader". Yet, this was not always reflected in their translations, as witnessed in the attempts made by many subjects to Arabize "psychodrama" that often led to false etymology الاستطباب النفسي*, when the term can simply be transliterated (see Terminology above).

⁶⁶ 'Asr' is the time for the third prayer between noon and sunset (around five o'clock) among the daily five prayers in Islam.

⁶⁷ Transcriptions of names and some titles are not included.

Subjects varied in deciding whether to Arabize or transcribe the foreign words. For example, they transcribed tennis تنس! far more often than Arabized it to كرة مضرب. Thirty-two subjects out of thirty-eight transcribed 'tennis' and seven out of twenty-eight transcribed 'taxi' تاكسي! instead of translating it سيارة أجرة, while 'hotel' and 'radio' were generally Arabized much more often to فندق and مذياع respectively. Such inconsistency shows variability between different students as to what they think is acceptable, and between different words. What is important is how far this reflects variability in Arabic equivalents for these words. According to the errors' categorization used in the present study, however, Arabic words would be most appropriate for the TT context with these words.

However, some students opted for more exaggerated forms in Arabizing ST words, which can be seen as over-translation. One example is in the translation of 'radio' in "no books, no radio, no argument, no pictures, no news", Text Eleven, as جهاز إذاعة مسموعة. This form is too formal and thus does not fit the context; one word, مذياع, is more appropriate (see relevant discussion in Chapter Three, Section Two: 2.1.1.1.3. Arabization, also see Register below).

4.2.1.1.2. Grammar

Errors in morphology, prepositions, articles and tense are all plainly incorrect because they break the rules of the grammatical (morpho-syntactic) system of the TT. Those in word order, passivity, negation and conditionals are inappropriate, because they are not breaking the rules of the language, but they fail to conform to the stylistic conventions of the TL (see Table 6, Chapter Four, Section One).

Interestingly, in numerical terms, the errors in Inappropriate/Grammar (2.00) represented a higher percentage of errors than Incorrect/Grammar (1.58). The relatively high figure of errors in the former can be explained by the fact it includes errors resulting from word order and passive forms which are largely a result of problems related to the ST structure. The latter represents errors in the TT related to the TL system, mainly morphology and prepositions (lack of competence in mother tongue). However, errors which are the result of a failure to decode complex grammatical stretches, including very long noun phrases in the ST, usually resulted in text-level errors. This was because these errors had double impact, not merely on grammar, but also wider textual meaning. They will be discussed in Text-level Errors below under their respective sections.

Students' underlining of grammatical structures (total 117) seems to fall under two main types. Total single and double underlining of passive forms is 43 and total single and double underlining of long syntactic structures that include noun phrases and multiple modifiers is 74, as Table 15 below shows. As will be discussed below, high figures of errors in these two aspects correlate with figures of underlining. The implication that can be drawn from this is that these two aspects of grammar constitute problems in terms of prominence of errors count and at the same time are perceived difficult by students.

TABLE (15): STUDENTS' UNDERLINING OF DIFFICULT ST GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES

Grammar			
Passive forms		Long syntactic structures	
Single	Double	Single	Double
39	4	52	22
43		74	
117			

The fact that underlining of these two categories is so high is significant. They are two not only resulted in high percentage of errors but also were perceived by the students as difficult; hence they could have tried strategies for solutions but failed. However, comparatively there are more double underlinings of long syntactic structures than of passive forms. The reason could be that the former usually include embedded clauses and phrases whose meanings students could not grasp when punctuation did not help too. Moreover, interference of difficult vocabulary can be another factor. In the commentaries and in the interviews, reference to the difficulty of ST grammar was made when the subject was confused by the function of certain grammatical items in the text such as a noun or an adjective. One subject wrote the following statement in the commentary and then reiterated it in the interview: “the word ‘blinded’⁶⁸ reminded me of words that are usually nouns or adjectives, but are sometimes used as verbs, although it is not the same case here”. What this shows is the extent of confusion between elements of grammar students experienced.

With regard to errors related to the TL system, the fact that Standard Arabic is more distant from spoken Arabic than written English is from spoken English might have been the cause of a lot of errors in the TL grammar. Errors related to the grammatical system of the TL, i.e. Arabic, occurred in the use of grammatical morphemes, prepositions, tense and articles. Average errors per student for all texts, as far as the sub-categories of Grammar/Incorrect are concerned, in descending order are as follows: morphemes (1.00), tense (0.23) prepositions (0.22) and articles (0.12). Since the rules of grammar in the morphological system of standard Arabic are complicated, errors in grammatical morphemes, which also contain far more sub-categories, are

⁶⁸ In “passengers are blinded before they choke on the fumes”, Text Six.

comparatively higher than those in tenses and prepositions, whereas errors in the use of articles are the least of all.

Below are more detailed examples of the subjects' translation errors in the areas mentioned above (Grammar/Sub-categories). Morphologically-conditioned spelling errors will be discussed under Spelling.

Incorrect TL grammar

Errors in Morphology (including case ending, subject-verb concord, gender concord and adjective concord), Prepositions, Tense and Articles belong to the category of Incorrect.

Morphology

Errors in this category include errors in case-ending such as كان/إن - noun concord and كان/إن - complement concord, verb concord, gender concord, adjective concord and number concord and others.

Case-ending

Although errors in case-ending do not usually hinder communication, such basic errors do give an amateurish impression, displaying apparent disregard or unawareness of the TL grammar rules (cf. Chapter Five, Discussion: 5.4.3. Errors Severity). Examples in Table 16 below are only a sample of a larger number of such errors in this area.

TABLE (16): ERRORS IN CASE ENDING

Errors in case-ending			
Text	ST	Erroneous translation	Correct version
3	These two facets	هذين المظهرين المتناقضين	هذان المظهران المتناقضان
4	The buyers	المشتريين	المشترون
4	Facing an uphill struggle	يواجهون نزاعاً شاقاً	يواجهون نزاعاً شاقاً
4	They are facing	قد يواجهوا	قد يواجهون
7	Uncomfortable	غير مرتاحاً	غير مرتاح

Subject-verb concord

One example of this type of error is in the erroneous use of the dual instead of the plural in a verb with three subjects as in the translation of “efficiency, and feminine charm and style are... .. embodied ...”, Text Three, ... *الكفاءة والسحر الأنثوي والأناقة ... يتجسدان....

Gender concord

Examples are: noun-relative pronoun concord *اللحظة الذي instead of اللحظة التي, noun-verb concord *القناع المصفى يمكن instead of القناع المصفى تمكن for “filter-mask enables”, Text Six, and adjective-noun concord *أحد الليالي instead of إحدى الليالي for “one evening”, Text Ten. Since the relation between the noun and the pronoun, the noun + adjective and verb respectively is straightforward and can be worked out from the surface, it is believed that such errors could only be slips or a result of proof reading, where the subject should have known the rule but did not pay enough attention to its implementation.

Adjective Concord

There are three types of plural nouns in Arabic: sound animate masculine plural, sound feminine plural, and broken plural (inanimate plural nouns). While no errors

were recorded with regard to the first two, a number of errors were recorded with regard to the third which concords with feminine adjectives. For example, an error like the following *ذات الألوان البنفسجي والأحمر for the translation of “purple or red-coloured fruits”, Text Eighteen, instead of ذات الألوان البنفسجية والحمراء reveals ignorance of this grammatical rule in Arabic; although لون *colour* is masculine, in its (broken) plural form, ألوان, it takes feminine singular adjectives.

Numeral concord

The rules of the numeral system of Arabic are, admittedly, complicated. However, errors in this area are not taken lightly by grammarians, though they may well pass unnoticed to the ordinary reader, e.g. *الساعة الحادية عشر ليلاً instead of الساعة الحادية عشرة ليلاً for the translation of “at eleven o’clock”, Text Nineteen.

Prepositions

Most errors in prepositions are in the choice of the TL preposition itself, including where the ST does not necessarily include one, as in the first two examples in Table 17 below:

TABLE (17): ERRORS IN PREPOSITIONS

Errors in misuse of prepositions			
Text	ST	Erroneous translation	Correct version
19	refuse any additional cups of tea	رفض الدعوة على أي فناجين إضافية	رفض الدعوة إلى أي فناجين إضافية
6	They choke in fumes	اختنقهم من الأدخنة	اختنقهم بالأدخنة
7	an old-fashioned kind	على الطراز القديم	من الطراز القديم

While explanations can be postulated for the first and the second examples - the first could be confused with other instances where دعوة *invitation* takes the preposition على, e.g. دعوة على الغداء *invitation for lunch*, the second shows the influence of the spoken

language and the third example stands out, as it cannot be traced to any particular cause.

Tense

As the figures show, errors in this category (0.23) are relatively insignificant. Tense does not seem to be a major problem since the Arabic tense-system is less complex than the English one, and the process of translating is often one of convergence. Generally speaking, in translating from English into Arabic, all tenses usually translate to simple forms. However, the fact that there is not an automatic “one to one” correspondence between the two tense systems appears to have presented the students with the problem of trying to reproduce the subtleties of the English forms in Arabic. The perfect tense, and particularly the perfect continuous tense, seemed to be puzzling to a number of subjects. Among the erroneous attempts to tackle the problem of the present perfect continuous tense and to convey the ST tense is translating “Rolex has been making watches for long time”, Text Three, to *كانت رولكس، ولا زالت *رولكس *Rolex was and still making watches for a long time* and *رولكس *Rolex is continuing to make watches*. Among the most acceptable attempts to tackle the complexity of ST tense is adding the idiomatic phrase لها باع طويل, which roughly means “it has a long stand” to the translation, i.e. رولكس لها باع طويل في صناعة الساعات, *Rolex has a long stand in making watches*, which indicates that Rolex has a history of making watches for which it is reputed.

Articles (definite/indefinite)

Fifteen out of a total of forty five errors in the use of articles occurred in + غير adjective, e.g. غير ملائمة instead of غير الملائمة or غير ملائمة for “ill-fitting”, Text Seven.

It is a common error in which students do not realise the principle, since غير is neither a noun nor an adjective, and thus does not take an article. The fact that no-one except one post-graduate student translated غير + adjective correctly whenever it appeared in the examples suggests that this is not an uncommon error by any means. A different error related to articles, though not very common, is the omission of the definite article as a generic marker in the TT, e.g. تنظيف النوافذ instead of تنظيف نافذة for “window cleaning”⁶⁹. Although such an “uneducated” mother-tongue error was not recurrent or systematic, the mere fact it appeared in one student’s translation at this level of education (university student) raises concern and potentially rings alarms about failing to realise basic issues in the mother tongue, though a test in writing directly in students’ mother tongue might reveal it is only ST interference.

Inappropriate choice of TL grammatical structure

Although errors in word order, passivity, negation and conditionals do not normally violate the TL grammatical system, they result in the translation sounding inappropriate. In the interviews subjects stressed that English and Arabic differ in these aspects. Practically, however, their translations show there was an obvious tendency among students to follow the ST grammatical system.

Word order

Word order was referred to by the subjects in the interviews as a problem of writing in the TT rather than a ST problem. For example, one subject said “I took a long time to put the right meanings and words in the right order”. Within Grammar, compared to

⁶⁹ Such errors are symptoms of total commitment to the ST forms regardless of the TT generic conventions which are indicated in Arabic not only by the definite article but also by the plural form of the noun.

other errors, a close study of the subjects' translations at the level of sub-sub-categories shows that errors in word order represent a high proportion, i.e. 137 out of a total of 424 are errors in word order. In percentage they represent 32% of the total number of errors in this category; higher than any of the other sub-sub-categories.

One area in which the translation seems to be influenced by the ST structure is in the choice between verbal and nominal sentences. The normal structure of sentence in Arabic is verbal, i.e. verb + subject and not the opposite, though, nominal sentences are used for emphasis in Arabic. Examples of errors in this category are in translating "the main auditorium will accommodate ...", Text One, to ... القاعة الرئيسية تتسع لـ instead of ... تتسع القاعة الرئيسية لـ, and translating "the recent rise in interest rates has meant ...", Text Four, to ... يعني الارتفاع الأخير instead of... يعني الارتفاع الأخير.

Despite the fact that this type of error is largely a result of the influence of the ST structure, a total commitment on the part of the translator to use this structure solely by converting all sentences begin with a noun in the ST to verbal in the TT, as in the case of some of the subjects' translations, resulted in the TT sounding unnatural. Arabic, in fact, tends to mix, or even favours variation between verbal and nominal sentences, as long as nominal structures do not exceed verbal ones.

Another example of the influence of the ST word order in the students translations is in the following: إن كريس إيفرت قد حققت مكانتها instead of مما لا شك فيه إن كريس إيفرت قد حققت مكانتها in the following: إن كريس إيفرت قد حققت مكانتها ... بلا شك for the translation of "without doubt, Chris Evert has secured her place", Text Three. A similar example is in the use of co-ordinated genitives إطاعة

instead of ⁷⁰طاعة القانون واحترامه for the translation of 'law-abiding', Text Sixteen. However, the following example ⁷¹معضلة الشاي أنه كان في الأصل يعد شراباً جيداً instead of ⁷¹معضلة الشاي أنه كان يعد في الأصل⁷¹ شراباً جيداً for the translation of "the trouble with tea is that originally it was quite a good drink", Text Nineteen, appears to be a case of poor control of the TL and unawareness of its norms, rather than an influence of ST word order.

Passive

Table 15 above shows that 43 underlinings out of the 117 underlinings of grammatical structures were of the passive. The number of underlinings of the passive (43) compared to underlinings of long syntactic structures (74), which include different constructions, is significant. It shows that ST passive forms can present real problems for students translating from English to Arabic. Table 18 below shows the type of passive forms underlined by the students. However, not all underlined passages resulted in errors and vice versa.

TABLE (18): UNDERLINING OF PASSIVE FORMS

Passive forms	Single	Double	No. of Texts
is stuck in a remote area	2		14
1800 cattle are slaughtered	3		12
had been sorted out	4	2	32
are also perfectly embodied in her watch	2	1	36
are blinded before they choke	3		36
(were the authentic ones) used in the miracle	3		12
had been commissioned by a circus	2	1	11
...have been particularly hard hit (just after they thought their teething problems had been sorted out")		4	32
	19	8	

⁷⁰ "إطاعة القانون" by itself is enough for the translation of "law-abiding".

⁷¹ Prepositional phrases, however, are generally flexible in Arabic with regard to word order.

Despite the fact that Table 18 above shows that there were far more single underlinings (difficult) than double underlinings (very difficult), the type of errors made by students in their translation shows that passive forms represent a real problem regardless of the fact that the passive forms underlined also included difficult vocabulary.

Errors in the use of passive seem to be of three main types:

- The first is when there is no passive in the ST but the translator used passive as in *السيكودراما بوصفها تقنية علاجية* instead of *السيكودراما التي قدمت من قبل الطب النفسي* for the translation of “the recent use of psychodrama as a therapeutic technique ...”, Text Two.
- The second example is when the translator attempted to tackle the problem of the passive by the introduction of *تم* and the result has not always been successful, as in *إن الموسيقى قد تم التفاوض على تأليفها من قبل السيرك* instead of the active form *إن الموسيقى قد تفاوض السيرك على تأليفها* for the translation of “the music had been commissioned by a circus”, Text Fifteen. Arabic rejects the passive where the subject is known.
- The third example is in choosing between forms of passive in Arabic where Arabic has preference for certain forms over others, as in *إُعْمِيَ المسافرون* instead of the more appropriate form *يُصَابُ المسافرون بالعمى* *passengers are subjected to blindness* for the translation of “passengers are blinded”, Text Six. The matter is not a one of preference for a verbal phrase over a single verb but the latter shows that “blindness” is incurred by the passengers.

Errors in passive are both a result of ST forms and a problem of poor control of the TL. That is on one hand, the problem seems to be because both English and Arabic have a passive form, students often tend to replicate the English form, where in Arabic it would be inappropriate. On the other hand, they seem not aware of the restrictions imposed on the use of passive in Arabic.

Negation

The two phenomena observed in the data analysis with respect to negation differ greatly. The first is related to grammar proper in the mother tongue, which is a purely formal issue that has to do with the position of the negator (after the verb and not before, e.g. لا يجب not يجب ألا). The other is related to lack of translation skill of using strategies such as transposition.

One common error in a number of students' translations is in the use of a negator combined with a modal verb, e.g. لا يجب تجفيفها *not should be dried* instead of يجب عدم تجفيفها *should not be dried* for the translation of "cans should not be drained", Text Eighteen. While both لا يجب تجفيفها and يجب عدم تجفيفها translate back the same into English, the negator in the first negates the modal verb not the action.

The other type of error in this area occurred when subjects stuck to the form of the ST in terms of grammatical positive/negative structures, e.g. "I had seen him once but only long enough to shake his hands", Text Seven. All of the subjects opted for a similar structure to that of the ST with varying errors at different elements within the sentence like لم يتسنى لي رؤيته إلا رأيتُه مرة واحدة بما يكفي فقط لمصافحته, while a translation like I met him once. It did not exceed shaking his hand is more idiomatic in Arabic and, at the same time, gives the same

meaning of the ST. An error of this kind is, perhaps, a combination of causes: ST influence and the lack of knowledge of idiomatic expressions in the TL.

Conditionals

In Text Twelve, which happened to include quite a number of conditional sentences, the majority of subjects tended to stick to the same form of conditional particles in the TT as in the ST. Excessive use of conditionals in “if you are a student and I am your teacher...if my input is unclear. If you haven’t understood...if I get hold of the wrong end of the stick ...If you tell me what’s wrong”, Text Twelve, when strictly transferred in the translation, would sound more forced in the TT. Moreover, most of the students opted to translate “if” only as “إذا”, while variation using different conditional particles, e.g. إن، لو، إذا which all mean “if” in English, would work better stylistically in the TT (cf. Chapter Five, Discussion: 5.3.1.1.1.).

4.2.1.1.3. Interaction of vocabulary and grammar

The above was an account of errors in grammar. However, there is an overlap between the two categories of Grammar and Vocabulary, i.e. errors in vocabulary could be a result of a problem of vocabulary and grammar together and vice versa. For example, the problem signalled by students underlining long stretches of multiple modifiers Table 19 below could be both grammatical and lexical.

TABLE (19): UNDERLINING OF MULTIPLE MODIFIERS

Multiple modifiers	Single	Double	No. of Texts
Sliding dividing walls	9	6	26
Monthly mortgage repayment	10	3	32
Psychiatrically staged scenes	8	5	26
Second biggest foreign currency earner	6	3	12
two-volume, leather-bound, early eighteenth century French poetry	6	2	13
Quintessential...retirement...secretive...inflexible...England	6	2	10
Feminine charm and style	4		36
Government-owned...meat corporation	3	1	12
Exotic and barbarous bird	2		8
	54	22	

Grammar problems could be worsened by these constructions often containing difficult lexis. For example, if we take the two first underlined multiple modifiers in the table above, we find the first including the words ‘sliding’ and ‘dividing’, both words were individually underlined by three subjects each. The second includes the word ‘mortgage’, which was underlined by seven subjects as an individual item (see Table 10 above, underlining of difficult vocabulary).

Confusing ‘stiff’ for ‘staff’ in “he looked uncomfortable in this *stiff* and slightly ill-fitting suit, and it also looked forty years out of date”, Text Seven, for example, not only indicates a lack of ability to distinguish between meanings from the context at the level of vocabulary, but also the inability to distinguish the function of basic elements of grammar in the sentence. One subject translated this sentence to نظر إليه من قبل العاملين معه وكأنه يبلغ من العمر أربعين عاماً, which reads like *he was looked at by the staff as if he was forty years old*. The wrong identification of grammatical class “staff” (noun) for “stiff” (adjective) led the translator to try to impose some sort of logical

sense on the rest of the sentence, even at the risk of ignoring other basic indications, e.g. “looked” + “in”. See “Cohesion” below.

A main cause of inability to transfer the ST constructions, as data and subjects' underlining above showed, seems to be when subjects are confronted with long stretches of language containing series of consecutive adjectives or genitives. The other reason is that the difficulty of translating one item can be a result of the difficulty of a preceding item, e.g. “I did not translate ‘sort out’ because I did not understand ‘teething problems’”. This is an indication of how one problem potentially leads to another problem.

4.2.1.1.4 Spelling

Apart from spelling errors resulting from interference of ST spelling, such as those errors leading to confusing proper nouns (see Proper Nouns above), errors in spelling are almost exclusively related to the TL. Moreover, spelling errors are always incorrect. While some spelling errors can be considered ‘slips’, as will be explained below, others appear to be genuine errors that reveal lack of full knowledge of the mechanism of the spelling system in the TL and lack of competence in the basic orthographic rules of the mother tongue. Most of these errors appeared in the otherwise weak undergraduate students, although it is interesting to note that certain types also appeared in the translations of good students, which were considered the best overall and virtually involved no other types of errors.

Invention

The term ‘invention’ is used here to refer to errors in which students invent a spelling that does not exist in Arabic due to lack of knowledge of the rules that govern the

Arabic spelling system. While invention might potentially include all types of spelling errors as those discussed below, this category is singled out because the type of errors does not involve other aspects such as interference of grammar, for example. The most frequent and more common spelling errors in this type are in the wrong use of /hamza/ ء: 35 out of a total of 196 spelling errors fell under this category, which is about 18%. Examples of wrong use of ء are as خطأ* instead of خطأ for ‘wrong’, كفاءة* instead of كفاءة for ‘efficiency’ and كأس* instead of كأس for ‘cup’. Although there were more last position “hamza” errors, this cannot be judged on ratio terms as correlation between the position of the “hamza” and frequency of errors. Other errors were random, such as الحي اللاتيني* instead of الحي اللاتيني for ‘the Latin Quarter’ and مجزرت* instead of مجزرة.

Morphological spelling

This type of error is a “double cause” type of error: grammar and spelling. It is discussed here because it is a spelling requirement depending on the grammatical function or position of the item but does not affect the meaning. One example is that when a word is preceded by a preposition, the last ي should be omitted, e.g. ناء and not نائي* for the translation of ‘remote’ in “the author is stuck in a remote hotel in E. Africa”, Text Eleven. Another example is the missing of ِ in the past tense that indicates masculine plural, e.g. أنفقوا* instead of أنفقوا for ‘spent’.

These errors and similar ones in case ending, when they are not persistent, are indications of grammar rules and spelling only partially learnt. In this case, a writer gets them wrong when his/her attention wanders. If they persist, they no doubt indicate ignorance of the rules of Standard Arabic.

Dialect influence⁷² and hypercorrection

Some errors appear to be related to influence of the local dialect spoken in Libya or conversely ignorance of standard Arabic pronunciation. Fifty errors out of the total of 196 spelling errors are thought to have resulted from local dialect influence, i.e. 26%. These include errors in the omission of “hamza”, which is usually dropped in local dialect, e.g. شط* instead of شاطئ for ‘shore’, كاس* instead of كأس for ‘cup’ and راس* instead of رأس for ‘head’. However, the majority of errors resulting from the local dialect influence involves the replacement of fricatives to their corresponding stops, e.g. /ذ/ being written as /د/: لذلك* for لذلك for *that*, /ث/ as تحديث* /ت/: for تحديث *modernization* and /ظ/ as /ض/: تظهر* for تظهر *appear*.

With spelling errors, what is more interesting than the transfer of /ذ/ to /د/ or /ث/ to /ت/, as reflects spoken Tripolitanian dialect, is when the reverse happens. In the data collected, a number of occurrences of /د/ were written wrongly as /ذ/, e.g. جذارة* instead of جذارة *competence*, and مندوب* for مندوب *delegate*⁷³. As the subject pronounces all /ذ/ as /د/, this case of hypercorrection indicates that the subject is aware that /ث/, /ذ/ and /ظ/ exist “out there” in standard Arabic phonetics, but s/he is not sure in which words.

Slips

The three types of slips are: letter inversion, e.g. منافسة* instead of منافسة for ‘competitor’, missing letters, e.g. يكو* instead of يكون for “be”, and substitution of similarly sounding words, e.g. حفلات* instead of حفلات for “parties”. Such errors can

⁷² Errors in this category, Rosenhouse 1989 lists under “register”.

⁷³ The equivalent translation for “delegate” is وفد.

only be a result of carelessness or poor proof reading/checking. Some miscopied the words from the drafts. While حافلات, مناسب, and يكون do not exist in the language, حافلات, on the other hand does not fit the context, where the subject matter is about ‘parties’ not ‘buses’. Students always corrected themselves when such errors were brought to their notice.

4.2.1.1.5. Addition

When the addition is unnecessary as in the case of addition of information and addition of stress, it is considered incorrect because it resulted in deviation from the original. When the addition is simply addition of more words or phrases as in the case of Inappropriate double/ alternative translation and Inappropriate expansion (an explication which is not required by the TT) it is considered “Inappropriate”, as shown in Table 6.

Incorrect addition of information

Examples of this kind of error are adding a statement that is not originally given in the ST, which adds unnecessary information that leads to wrong assumptions. An example of this is as preceding the translation of “a smoke-hood ...enables passengers to survive longer”, Text Six, with *الحل الوحيد في مثل هذه الحالات هو meaning *the only solution in these cases is...*, which is not what the ST says. Another example of this is in the translation of “Toxic fumes create a film over the eyes, so that a passenger cannot see to escape from a burning plane”, Text Six, as *تخلق الأدخنة السامة غشاوة على toxic fumes create a film over the eyes that prevents passengers from seeing the plane exits. This tells us that on occasions when

subjects take too much liberty in adding what they thought an elaboration of the ST, their translations risk giving faulty information that does not accurately reflect the ST.

Incorrect addition of stress

Addition of stress is giving prominence by the insertion of a word that gives an extra emphasis to an element that is not prominent in the ST, e.g. لا سيما لا أخبار. * for no books ... no news. “لا سيما” *especially* gives prominence to “the news” that is not in the ST, and so does حتى, which means “even”. Students used “حتى” for emphasis more often than “لا سيما”, e.g. “patients not only act out parts with some effectiveness, but employ no script in doing so”, Text Two, لا يمثل المرضى أجزاء من المشاهد بشيء من, من *patients not only act out parts of the scenes with some effectiveness, but do not employ even written script in doing so*.

Inappropriate double/ alternative translation

Intentional addition at the level of vocabulary is giving one word in the ST two or more alternative meanings in the TT, one of which sometimes may be wrong, e.g. إقاعة الاجتماعات/ المؤتمرات *meetings/conferences’ room* for ‘auditorium’. There might be an influence here from class ‘display’: showing the teacher the student knows both meanings, though it gives a strange translation.

Inappropriate expansion

A different type of addition at this level is when the translator opts for the use of phrases whereas a single word conveys the meaning better, e.g. تقوم بعرض for ‘offering’ in the translation of “a little girl offering wine jars for sale”, Text Thirteen. Simply تعرض is more appropriate.

Some additions seem to relate to words that usually collocate together in Arabic, e.g. البذلة وكأنها أيضاً من طراز مضت عليه أربعون سنة إبتت *the suit also looked as if it was a model of forty years ago* for the translation of “it also looked forty years out of date”, Text Seventeen, and إبتت وكأنها النسخة الأولى *it seemed as if it was the first edition* for “it seems what I had was the first edition”, Text Seventeen. بدت in Arabic, for both “seemed” and “looked” collocates with كان *as if* but the insertion of كان as in the translation here gives the impression of doubt more than confirmation, though the ST implies the latter. Unlike the previous example, the following one does not raise doubts but merely adds an empty phrase that is not in the ST: إذا ما تبين لك أن الجرار كبيرة: إذا *if it became apparent to you that the jars were too big* for ‘if they (the jars) were too big...’, Text Thirteen. ‘If’ can simply be translated as إذا, i.e. إذا كانت الجرار كبيرة جداً. The tendency to say things in a cluster of words while the ST uses a single item seems to be common among those who have better competence in translation. This strategy of opting for a chunk of items while an equivalent single item exists, and it is better, usually results in the TT sounding verbose. Interestingly, students sometimes made changes when copying from the drafts which added unnecessary words, as in the case of translating “the trouble with tea”, Text Nineteen, in the draft to مشكلة الشاي, which is very close to the original, but during editing the student wrote الصعوبة بالنسبة للشاي *the difficulty for tea/as far as tea is concerned*.

However, inserted items such as the ones discussed above can be dealt with by merely omitting them. Others entail total changes, “I have an eye for celebrities”, Text Ten, أنا أتمتع بنفاذ نظر وحسن تمييز للشخصيات المشهورة *I enjoy a penetrating vision and a graceful distinguish for famous figures* instead of لدى بصيرة تميز المشاهير *I have got a discernment that distinguishes celebrities*. This example of expansion also reveals misunderstanding of idiom (double cause of error).

At the level of clusters of words, however, redundant additions usually appeared in form of over-loaded meanings, i.e. the addition does not carry an additional message which is only a stylistic issue. A comparison of what is acceptable and what is not would probably illustrate the difference. Adding the idiomatic expression القول السائد *the common saying* preceding “practice makes perfect”, Text Three, whose equivalent in Arabic is not a proverb, appropriately prepares the reader for the fact that what is coming is an expression. In a way, it is decoding the inverted commas in the ST into words. On the other hand, one subject's insertion of ومما يجدر الإشارة إليه *it is worth noting* in... تكشف عن... to precede the translation of “off court, however, she reveals...”, Text Three, is inappropriate: this is an expression used in journalistic writings to introduce added information but not in an advertisement (see Text-Level Errors below, section on “Register”). Here, we have a problem of non-discrimination between what is appropriate for different text types.

4.2.1.16. Omission

Omission, as the data reveals, is of two types: leaving out an item or a section (a phrase, clause or even a whole sentence), cf. Table 6. When either type of omission results in missing information that breaks communication, it is considered incorrect. If the missing information does not break communication but is part of the message it is considered inappropriate. Below, different examples of omission are discussed.

Incorrect omission of item

This can appear in the form of leaving a space for the missing part or merely ignoring the existence of the item and proceeding with the translation as if the item does not exist. An example of the first type is from Text Two “the recent use of ‘psychodrama’”

as a therapeutic technique illustrates a further point”: _____*يوضح الاستعمال الحديث لـ

كأسلوب علاجي نقطة جديدة. The space in the middle is where the translation of “psychodrama” should appear. This example is a case of continuing translation past an insoluble problem, while elsewhere the strategy is one of abandoning the task altogether.

An example of the second type is when the item in question does not go along with the translator’s interpretation, e.g. when all the qualities preceding “grumpy” and after it in Text Sixteen, “seaside holiday, rose-growing, dog-loving, window-washing, church-going, law-abiding, grumpy, library-using, tea-drinking”, appear to the translator as positive, ‘grumpy’ in the middle does not fit such an interpretation. The subject, a novice translator, used the strategy of omission of ‘grumpy’ to make sense of her interpretation of the text. In fact the subject was explicitly asked in the interview about the author’s attitude, and the reply was “positive”, contrary to the reality. This last example shows that the item missing from the translation is just dropped, as if unnoticed, because it does not fit the interpretation of the other items; both before and after it. In the case of translating “Tito gained many left-wing international contacts”, Text Eight, as *اكتسب تيتو خبرة دولية* * *Tito gained international experience* does show that students experienced real difficulty that led to discarding the troubling items in the translation. Both ‘left-wing’ and ‘contacts’ were also double underlined by the student.

Incorrect omission of section

The other kind of omission is when a section that is crucial to the meaning is totally ignored without any overt signal that it is missing, e.g. in the translation of “Noise levels at the Austerlitz rail terminus, Paris, have been greatly reduced by the

application of ...”, Text Five, ... انخفضت معدلات الضوضاء بنسبة كبيرة وذلك باستعمال * there is no mention of where the noise has been reduced. The translator discarded the translation of the whole difficult part ‘the Austerlitz rail terminus, Paris’, which he also double underlined as an indication of being very difficult, and presented the translation as if there were no missing information. For more similar examples of omissions, see Text level errors below.

Inappropriate omission of item

Examples of inappropriate omission are when the general message is rendered incomplete but the missing item/section does not hinder communication. An example of omitting an item is in the following translation for “I bought (for a shilling) a two-volume, leather-bound, early, eighteenth-century collection of French poetry...”, Text Seventeen, as اشتريت بشلن مجلدين من الشعر الفرنسي بأوائل القرن الثامن عشر *I bought for a shilling a two-volume, early, eighteenth-century collection of French poetry*. In the translation there is no mention of ‘leather-bound’. Although ‘leather-bound’ is part of the message, it is not the core of it. Moreover, generally speaking eighteenth-century books were all leather-bound. This is also a problem of consecutive compounds (see Compounds above).

Inappropriate omission of a section

At the level of sections, the translation of “it (the train) got in only an hour late, which someone informed me was quite unprecedented”, Text Nine, as وصل القطار متأخراً ساعة! *the train arrived only an hour late, which was considered unprecedented*, the phrase ‘which, someone informed me’ is missing. In fact the

phrase is not redundant in the ST but it tells us that the information is significant as it came from a local source.

The above was an account of language errors, where each category was analyzed both numerically and qualitatively. Below, errors at the text level are discussed.

4.2.1.2. Text-level errors

Text-level errors are those errors whose impact goes beyond the immediate co-text to the text as a whole. Errors in grammar such as the ones discussed above can be blamed largely on lack of competence in the TL. In vocabulary, the errors can be blamed largely on poor strategies of searching in the dictionary, faulty inference from the context, or on inappropriate techniques of omission and addition (cf. Chapter Five: Discussion). Text-level errors tend to have both ST and TT causes. A common ST factor is the lack of comprehension at the level of the discourse of the text as a whole. This can result from inability to appreciate irony, insensitivity to register, lack of background knowledge or ignorance of the SL culture. TT causes can be related to the lack of skills in the TL to produce the structures or devices of the ST or can be a result of a process transfer problem, when the translator can write well in the TL but cannot translate well.

In the interviews in the initial twelve case studies, six subjects were directly asked comprehension questions about certain instances; only two stressed that the main problem they faced while carrying out the task was understanding the ST, though they mainly complained of the difficulty of conveying the meaning in the TL. However, when referring to particular texts the following remarks were often uttered: “I did not understand the idea of the text” or “I can’t exactly understand the text in English” and

“I found difficulty in understanding what the subject of the text is about”. In their commentaries, reference to the difficulty of understanding specific STs or part of it was made by using key words or phrases such as “did not understand”, “the meaning was not clear” and “throughout this text, I felt that the understanding of the content is very important to translate correctly”.

Texts selected to manifest categories such as rhetoric, register, irony, satire and others rarely showed such features in most of the undergraduate students’ translations. However, there were some decent attempts made by the post-graduate students to render such aspects in their translations. On occasions, undergraduates, in particular, were even misled by the use of certain vocabulary and grammatical structures to understand the opposite of what was intended, as will be demonstrated below – each under their relevant categories.

Text level errors consist of Rhetorical and Stylistic Devices, Cohesion, Register and Style, Background Knowledge and Culture.

4.2.1.2.1. Rhetorical and stylistic devices

If we assume that any text is composed of vocabulary and grammar, an overlap between the two-level division between language items level and text level would be inevitable (cf. Chapter Three, Section Two). This is particularly true when we investigate the literary style of a text and the use of literary devices. For example, at the level of vocabulary, when we prefer the word متوتراً for the translation of ‘nervous’ in “if you were nervous”, Text Nineteen, (How to be an Alien, George Mike), to امشدود الأعصاب *tight nerves*, which was opted for by some students, the reason is that متوتراً is clearly more literary. At the level of phrase, we consider تظهر الدمثة واللف معاً

she reveals both charm and genteel for the translation of “she reveals both wit and charm”, Text Three, an advertisement, was more eloquent than *فهي نبيلة جدا she is very witty*. Individually, such errors, according to our criteria, belong to the level of individual language items as discussed above under the category of Inappropriate/Vocabulary. However, collectively they become text-level errors when there are too many of them in the text. For example, compare the following two translations of the letter to the editor by Valerie Eliot, Text Ten,

ST “my husband T. S. Eliot, loved to recount how late one evening he stopped a taxi. As he got in, the driver said: ‘Ah. I’ve got an eye for a celebrity’”

Translation 1 below is a typical example opted for by some subjects and Translation 2 is a model translation. Stylistically, at the level of text, Translation 1 is less idiomatic and hence inferior to Translation 2, which is more eloquent than version 1. Although Translation 1 does not deviate from ST semantics, it exhibits a trace of literal transfer of the ST. Translation 2 is a well composed piece of writing in Arabic with regard to vocabulary choice and eloquence.

Translation	أحب زوجي تي. أس. إليوت أن يروي كيف أوقف سيارة أجرة
(1)	متأخراً ذات مساء وبمجرد دخوله السيارة قال له السائق: عندي بصر يميز الناس المشهورين.
Translation	لدى زوجي تي. أس. إليوت ولع بإعادة سرد كيف أوقف سيارة
(2)	أجرة متأخراً ذات مساء إذ حالما صعد السيارة بادره السائق بالقول: لدي بصيرة تميز المشاهير.

Table 20 below shows the difference between the two versions in vocabulary choice and in the use of idiomatic expressions.

TABLE (20): ERRORS IN RHETORICAL AND STYLISTIC DEVICES.

	ST items	Subject's translation (1)	Back translation	Professional Translation(2)	Back translation
Vocabulary	Loved	أحب	Loved	ولع... لدى	Have passion to
	Recount	يروى	Tell	إعادة سرد	Recount
	As he got in	بمجرد دخوله	As entering	حالما صعد	As soon as getting in
	Said	قال	Said	بادره... بالقول	Initiated by saying
Expression	I've got an eye for a celebrity"	عندي بصر يميز الناس المشهورين	I have vision distinguishes famous people	لدي بصيرة تميز المشاهير	I have mental vision/insight to distinguish celebrities the famous

One explanation of students opting for Translation 1 is that they were more occupied by transferring the message, which led to overlooking the esthetic value.

Below, the following specific rhetorical features will be discussed: "metaphor and simile", "repetition and parallelism", "satire", "irony" and "alliteration", as examples of features of literary writing.

Metaphor and Simile

The difference between errors related to metaphor and simile in students translations may be illustrated by the following examples. With regard to the former, the metaphor 'flagship' in "the Lobatse slaughterhouse is the flagship of the government-owned Botswana Meat Corporation (BMC) ...", Text Fourteen, was not realised, as the literal translation by those who attempted to translate it, which would not give the required figurative meaning in Arabic, indicates. Three out of the twelve who translated Text Fourteen single underlined metaphor 'flagship'. With regard to the latter, all realised the simile in 'machine-like efficiency', Text Three, as all used one of the simile markers such as *كـ*, *مثلـ*, *تشبهـ*, *الشبيهة بـ* in their translations, but it was not translated properly. Eleven among the thirty-six subjects who translated Text Three

underlined the phrase “machine-like efficiency” as being very difficult or difficult (six double underlining and five single underlining, respectively). As for the metaphor ‘you are judged an exotic and barbarous bird’, Text Nineteen, two out of the eight subjects single underlined the phrase, most likely because of the two adjectives (‘exotic’ and ‘barbarous’) preceding ‘bird’ than because of the metaphor itself. The conclusion that can be drawn from this is that students perceive both simile and metaphor as difficult.

Furthermore, student translations showed that simile can result in as severe errors, if not more severe, as those resulting from metaphor. That is due to the fact that “you are judged an (exotic and barbarous) bird”, Text Nineteen, can be translated literally, as in the majority of the students translations, giving a similar metaphoric force in Arabic. With “machine-like efficiency”, Text Three, the simile is not formed in the conventional way, i.e. efficient as/like a machine, so it is more complicated to render into Arabic. Subjects’ use of simile markers in the TT of Text Three such as *كـ مثل، تشبيه، الشبيهة* all indicate that they realised the simile in the ST and tried to render it in the TT. However, the comparison between the efficiency of Chris Evert with that of the machine is odd in Arabic (a living human being as a machine), as the following translations opted for by the subjects indicate: *مثل الآلة، كالألة as a machine تشبه الآلة, like a machine*. Other translations where the simile was not literally rendered but implied are no better, e.g. *الكفاءة الآلية machinery efficiency كفاءة الآلة machine efficiency*. In fact none of these alternatives is structurally incorrect, but they do not make sense. It could be a case of difference of conventions of advertisements in both languages, as far as this particular text is concerned.

Repetition and parallelism

One of the rhetorical devices used in both English and Arabic is repetition, but in each language it works differently (cf. Chapter Three, Section Two). In Text Nineteen repetition is used to amuse.

ST “If you are invited to an English home, at five o’clock in the morning you get a cup of tea ... Then you have tea for breakfast; then you have tea at eleven o’clock in the morning; then after lunch; then you have tea for tea; then after supper; and again at eleven o’clock at night”,

Retaining all the repetition in the TT would not achieve the same purpose. In contrast, abandoning the repetition and expressing the recurrence of “offering tea” by one word تتالى as in the model translation below would serve the purpose better:

إذا دعيت إلى بيت إنجليزي، عند الساعة الخامسة صباحاً يقدم لك كأس شاي، ثم يقدم لك ثانية مع الإفطار، ومن بعدها تتالى عليك أكواب الشاي؛ فتشربه عند الساعة الحادية عشر صباحاً، ثم بعد الغداء، ثم ما بين الخامسة والسادسة، وبعد العشاء، ومرة أخرى عند الساعة الحادية عشرة.

All subjects transferred the same repetition “you get a cup of tea ... then you have tea for breakfast; then you have tea at eleven o’clock in the morning; then after lunch; then you have tea for tea; then after supper; and again at eleven o’clock at night” as in the ST when translating Text Nineteen, which was especially selected to test this issue (besides others). Despite the fact that retaining the repetitions in the TT would not achieve the purpose intended in the ST, i.e. amusing, it also results in the style appearing feeble and pallid (cf. 3.2.2.1.3). Excessive use of repetition in most students’ translations was also noticed by the two raters who were consulted about the translations. One evaluator suggested that a solution to maintain the ironic tone

expressed by repetition in the ST might be to vary the rendition of the word tea by replacing it with ironic phrases such as ‘the noble drink’, or ‘the English nectar’, for example. What is said about repetition, as exemplified by the word ‘tea’, can also be said about parallelism, as exemplified by the use of the conditional structure ‘if’ and the clause ‘then...’. One interpretation of the students opting for retaining all repetitions and parallelism is their faithfulness to the ST at the expense of effective rhetoric in the TT.

Conversely, subjects failed to use the resources of the mother tongue, as exemplified by the cognate accusative⁷⁴ for rhetorical purposes as a unique feature of repetition in Arabic. The cognate accusative is used in Arabic for emphatic assertion and could compensate for other devices used in English (cf. Chapter Three, Section Two). For example, ... “feminine charm and style are embodied in her watch”, Text Three, caused a lot of trouble to many students, as explained in different places above; a solution could be the use of the cognate accusative, i.e. سحر الأنوثة وأسلوبها يتجسدان تجسيدا. كاملا في ساعتها. In the whole corpus, only two post-graduate students used it to compensate for ‘greatly’ in “Noise levels ... have been greatly reduced”, Text Five, e.g. انخفض معدل الضجيج انخفاضا كبيرا في... while used by one professional translator quite generously in different text types. He used it six times in the nineteen texts, including twice in one text. This indicates that the subjects missed the opportunity to compensate for some of the SL emphatic usages, e.g. مرن مرونة *flexible enough*.

⁷⁴ An example of “cognate accusative” given by Hatim, (1997: 165), is: *wa nafaa waziir al-khaarjiyyati al-surii nafyan qaaTi’an an takuuna li- suuriyaa ayyata ‘alaaqtin bi ...* (from a news report).

Satire

The two texts by Paul Theroux, *The London Embassy*, Text Seven, and *The Kingdom by the Sea*, Text Sixteen (see Appendix 1), were used as examples of satirical writing. In the first "shake his hand-a damp, slack, small-boned hand. The only other thing that I could remember was that he had been wearing evening-dress of an old-fashioned kind" the satire is overt. In the second "quintessential England-not just coastal, seaside holiday, retirement England, but secretive, rose-growing, dog-loving, window-washing, church-going, law-abiding, grumpy, library-using, tea-drinking, fussy and inflexible England" it is more veiled satire. As far as students' translations are concerned, both texts proved extremely difficult to render. Apart from the fact that a main source of difficulty was the strings of consecutive adjectives and compounds (see Table 12 above), as those who were interviewed stated, the satirical tone was not transferred as expressed in the ST.

Irony

Even when subjects showed appreciation of irony in the ST, as expressed in the interviews, most of them experienced difficulty in presenting this feature in their translations. The following serves as an example of transferring the factual meaning, but not the irony itself. The rhetorical meaning of "not only did it arrive (the train), but got in only about an hour late", Text Nine, is that one hour is actually too long, but that this was typical for Soviet Russia. The following translation opted for by one undergraduate student تأخر القطار ساعة كاملة *the train was late a whole one hour* says this overtly rather than covertly, which loses the ironic effect. Also, the over-explicated nature of the translation means that the implication "typical for Soviet Russia" is missing.

In the following fragment from George Mikes, *How to be an Alien*, Text Nineteen, the ST says: “the trouble with tea is that originally it was a good drink. So a group of the most eminent British scientists put their heads together, and made complicated biological experiments to find a way of spoiling it”. For a number of subjects it was hard to realise the ironic tone and then transfer it. For example,

*مشكلة/معضلة الشاي هي أنه أصلاً كان شراباً جيداً لذلك قام فريق من أبرز علماء بريطانيا معاً بإجراء تجارب بيولوجية معقدة لإيجاد طريقة للحد من تناوله.

the trouble with tea is that originally it was a good drink. So a team of the most prominent scientists all together made complicated biological experiments to find a way of limiting its intake, not only shows that the TT exhibits no trace of irony, but the message of “to find a way of spoiling it” is completely distorted. Confronted by an “illogical” statement that the student did not realise as ironic, the student translator has tried to make discourse sense, and thus has made a serious error at the level of semantic content, though it reads well superficially applying a familiar “fight against addiction” schema.

Another example of an inability to appreciate irony causing failure to infer the meaning from the context is found in the translation of Text Thirteen below. It shows how the student used the strategy of omission to go round the problematic element that does not fit with his/her inference of other parts of the text.

ST “We went to Cana of Galilee, where a little girl was offering wine jars for sale. They were the authentic ones used in the miracle. If they were too big she had smaller size indoors, yes the small ones were authentic too”,

Student	ذهبنا إلى حانة كانا فيلي التي تعرض فيها فتاة صغيرة جرار الخمر
translation	المستخدمة في عملية البيع هذه تقليدية. للبيع حيث كانت تلك الجرار إذا كانت هذه الجرار كبيرة جدا فإن الفتاة تمتلك جرارا صغيرة الحجم في البيت.

In back translation, the text reads like this:

Back	“We went to Canavillee bar where there was a little
translation	girl offering wine jars for sale. Those jars used in the sale were traditional. If these jars were too big the girl owns small jars at home”.

Apart from the wrong translation of ‘Cana of Galilee’ as كانا فيلي *Canavillee*, the TT has lost all ironic effect by mistranslating translating ‘authentic’ into ‘traditional’ and the omission of ‘the miracle’. Even those who translated it right were unable to show in the interview that they caught the subtle meaning intended (see religion below). The translation of the text as a whole raises a question of comprehension, as key words not understood (cf. Chapter Five, Discussion).

Alliteration

Five out of the thirty-six who translated Text Three single underlined the expression ‘practice does make perfect’ while the overwhelming majority translated literally, as the following examples show, e.g. التطبيق يصنع الكمال، الخبرة تصنع الكمال، المزاولة تصنع الخبرة. All translations say the same thing but literally with no attempt to preserve the ST alliteration, though it is widely used in Arabic for the same purpose.

4.2.1.2.2. Cohesion

A central problem in students’ translations at the text-level is when the whole passage is often no more than a succession of sentences. This is evident in the number of

distorted passages which tended to show lack of cohesive progression and coherent linkage. The problem of lack of cohesion is prominent in a high proportion of subjects' translations, though it is more prominent and frequent in the undergraduate students' translations. Post-graduate students, however, tended to show more sensitivity towards inter-sentential linkage with regard to the cohesive progression of ideas.

To test perception of TT cohesion, a sample of the translations of six texts was shown to native speakers of Arabic who had no previous knowledge of the ST. Their reaction was that from the vocabulary used, they could tell what the topic of the passages was, but they could not make any logical link between different sequences in the passages.

In the interviews, although the term cohesion itself was not mentioned, inability to write coherently in the TT was reported by the subjects in different ways. This, however, indicates an awareness of the importance of the cohesion of the text. The pattern of utterances to emphasize this problem was as follows:

- “my problem is in the structure of the Arabic, I cannot connect the sentences together”,
- “I could not put the sentences in an organized way”,
- “the difficulty is in connecting sentences together, the result is a literal translation”,
- “It is easy to find the meaning in the dictionary but the difficulty is in connecting the sentences”,
- “connecting the ideas in Arabic is difficult”,
- “the most important thing is when the meaning is connected”,

Abandoning the translation after an initial attempt⁷⁵ because the meaning would be interrupted when one word or expression in the middle was too difficult to translate as was occasionally stated, also points at awareness of cohesion issues.

The following is an example of such a problem. Despite the weak grammatical constructions and the inappropriate use of cohesive devices, however, one still can make sense of the text:

ST Toxic fumes create a film over the eyes, so that a passenger cannot see to escape from a burning plane. Passengers are blinded before they choke on the fumes. A smoke hood - or the alternative, a filter mask - enables passengers to survive for longer in toxic fumes.

Student translation الدخان السام يصنع غشاوة على العيون، ولهذا السبب المسافر لا يستطيع أن يرى ليهرب من الطائرة المحترقة. يصير المسافرون عماء قبل اختناقهم بالدخان. حجاب دخاني أو البديل والقناع الواقى يخول المسافرين بأن يبقوا أحياء لمدة أطول فى الغازات السامة.

At the level of the choice and use of cohesive devices, the use of the causative (ف) *so* in *toxic fumes create a film over the eyes, so that a passenger cannot see to escape* would make a more logical link here than the additive (و) *and*, as used in the subject's translation above. At the level of punctuation, a full stop after *ليهرب من الطائرة المحترقة* and *for this reason passengers cannot see to escape from the burning plane* and starting a new sentence *يصير المسافرون عماء قبل اختناقهم بالدخان* *passengers become*

⁷⁵ Thirteen texts were abandoned after initial translation; eleven by undergraduates and two by post-graduates.

blinded before they choke on the fumes interrupts the flow of the TT. In such linked meanings Arabic usually uses the cohesive device (حيث) *as* between sentences, i.e. لا يستطيع المسافرون الرؤية للفرار من الطائرة المحترقة حيث يصابون بالعمى قبل اختناقهم بالدخان *passengers cannot see to flee the burning plane as they become blind before they choke on the fumes*. On the other hand, putting the phrase أو بديل عنه كالكمامات *or an alternative like masks* between two commas, thus giving غطاء واقى من الدخان، أو بديل عنه would have shown it is an embodied explanatory phrase: in the subject's translation, this emphasis is not clear.

Cohesion is maintained by the use of cohesive devices. Below, some of the cohesive devices are discussed with reference to students' translations. Among the sub-categories of Cohesion that will be discussed below are: Reference, Substitution, Ellipsis, Conjunctions, Theme and Rheme issues, Paragraphing and Graphic and Orthographic marks.

Reference

Pronoun reference in Arabic is more specific and detailed than in English. For example 'you' in English can be either singular or plural, and bears no gender marker; in Arabic different forms of the second person bear singular, plural and gender markers. In Text Twelve, the addressees in "study conditions can be difficult for you" are a group of students, as the reference between the two brackets (Informal Briefing to New Students) at the end of the text shows (cf. Orthographic markers below). Fourteen out of the fifteen subjects who translated the text translated 'you' as a second person singular أنت instead of the plural أنتم.

As for the dummy 'it', as used in Text Nineteen, in "you must not refuse any additional cups of tea under the following circumstances: if it is hot; if it is cold", the problem was the inability to distinguish between the dummy and anaphoric "it" (referring to the weather and "tea" respectively) when only context can tell them apart. Seven subjects out of eight translated "it" as referring to "tea" and not to the weather, e.g. عليك عدم رفض أي أكواب إضافية في الظروف الآتية: إذا كان الشاي ساخناً أو كان بارداً.

An error in the use of passive involving the wrong referent reveals the extent of deviation from the ST, e.g. طلب من الملحن سترافينسكي عن طريق بالنشين أن يقوم بتلحين موسيقى. لرقصة البولكا for "the composer Stravinsky was asked by Balanchine, the impresario, to choreograph a polka", Text Fifteen. طريق عن *through (via)* says that Balanchine was only a mediator and not the prime party who initiated the deal.

Substitution

The three types of substitution, i.e. nominal, verbal and phrasal (Halliday and Hassan 1976: 91) were tested against students in the multi-subject study, as exemplified in Text Thirteen, Text Eleven and Text Four respectively below:

They (jars) were the authentic ones used in the miracle. If they were too big she had a smaller size indoors; yes, the small ones were authentic too;

Nobody turned up. Until, the fourth day, somebody did;

Patients not only act out parts with some effectiveness, but employ no script in doing so.

Among the three types illustrated above, students managed to handle nominal substitution best by bringing in the substituted referent 'jars' (despite the inappropriate choice of the TL equivalent in some of the translations when students

opted for other alternatives such as *قوارير* *flasks*, *أقداح* *glasses*, *أواني* *pots* instead of *جرار* (*jars*).

The translations of the verbal substitution proved most difficult among undergraduates in comparison with the other two groups, as no undergraduate got it perfectly right. Students' translations with respect to verbal substitution fall under two categories. The first is literal transfer of the ST structure: *في اليوم الرابع أتى أحدهم/ أحدهم* *on the fourth day one of them came/ one of them did/and did one of them*. The second is more explicit but still not explicit enough: *في اليوم الرابع شخص ما فعل ذلك/ قام شخص بذلك* *on the fourth day one person did that*. Both translations do not sound right in Arabic, which normally opts for total explicitness: e.g. *في اليوم الرابع جاء شخص ما* *on the fourth day somebody came*.

Phrasal substitutes such as 'so' can still be retained in Arabic when translated to *ذلك* *that* as in the translation of "patients not only act out parts with some effectiveness, but employ no script in doing so", Text Four, a translation which was opted for by one of the two novice translators, who translated the phrase to *دون استعمال أي نص عند القيام بذلك* *without using any script when doing that*. Other translations were erroneous because of the wrong choice of the preposition for the context, e.g. *دون استعمال أي نص* *على فعل ذلك*. However, no one opted for the omission of 'in doing so' which would have worked better in the translation, i.e. *لا يقوم المرضى فقط بتمثيل أجزاء من المشاهد بشيء من الكفاءة ولكنهم يؤدونها دون الاستعانة بأي نص مكتوب* *patients not only act out parts of the scenes with some effectiveness, but they perform them unaided with a written text script*.

Ellipsis

The dummy verb 'do' is used in English as a stylistic device, but when translated literally into Arabic the same ellipsis often distorts meaning. In Text Fifteen, "If they're very young, 'said Stravinsky, 'I'll do it.' Well, they were; and he did - hence the circus polka", the problem was a combination of alternating between substitution and ellipsis, which complicated matters further. The text proved one of the most difficult texts students attempted to translate as most of their translations did not render the message properly. Among the erroneous translations is the following, إذا كانت صغيرة جداً، قال سترافينسكي، سأقوم بذلك. لقد كانت صغيرة وقام بذلك وبالتالي كانت البولكا . What students failed to realise is that the elliptical items have to become non-elliptical as they are recovered from the previous exchange in the dialogue, i.e. إذا كانت الفيلة صغيرة جداً، فسوف أقوم بتلحين موسيقى البولكا، قال سترافينسكي. وبالفعل كانت الفيلة صغيرة ومن ثم تم وضع if the elephants were very young, I would choreograph the music of polka, said Stravinsky. Indeed, the elephants were young and so the music of polka dance was formulated (3.2.2.2.1.).

Conjunctions

With regard to ST, data analysis shows subjects do not seem to have problems with ST additive (and, also, or)⁷⁶ and causal (so, because, for) conjunctions. However, adversative conjunctions (yet, only, but, however) were occasionally problematic. Subjects tended to constantly use لكن for "but" and إلا أن for "however" and "yet" instead of using other devices such as غير أن, for example, which did not appear in any

⁷⁶ Interestingly Arabic additives as paragraph and inter-sentential linkage were either dismissed in the TT or misused, see below.

of the students' translations despite the fact it is frequently used in Arabic. This indicates that subjects tended to look at the relation between ST and TT cohesive devices as a case of one-to-one correspondence.

At the level of the TT per se, data analysis shows misuse of even basic TL cohesive devices such as *و* and *ف*. In addition there is evidence of the absence of other devices such as *بل* , *أما* , *قد* , *إذ* , *حيث* where they should have been used. The implication is unlikely to be unawareness of the available range of conjunctions in the TL, but it could be a combination of ST influence and being unskilled in using the TL patterns cited.

Theme and rheme

Among the twenty students who translated Text Eight: "Living in a small hotel on the left bank in Paris, moving between contacts in the working-class suburbs and among students in the Latin Quarter, Tito gained many left-wing international contacts", only two (one post-graduate and one novice translator) managed to realise the problem of theme/rheme. They solved it by bringing 'Tito', which carries the theme of the passage, to the front, i.e..... *تمكن تيتو من كسب مؤيدين خلال إقامته في Tito was able to gain supporters during his stay in ...*(the postgraduate), and *اكتسب تيتو أثناء إقامته...الكثير من Tito gained while staying ... many relations* The novice translator also provided a lengthy commentary on the text. The other subjects followed the ST structure and provided erroneous translations in which the opening sentences started with either *العيش living* or *بالإقامة by staying*.

Paragraphing

A comparison between students' translations and one of the model translations with regard to Text Nineteen, the only text composed of more than two paragraphs (four), shows that scarcely any of the students maintained paragraph linkage using devices such as **و** and **ف**, the conventional devices among others in Arabic to maintain paragraph linkage. Table 21 shows the difference between the professional translator's version and typical students' translations:

TABLE (21): DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PROFESSIONAL TRANSLATOR'S AND SUBJECTS' TRANSLATIONS IN TT PARAGRAPH LINKAGE.

Paragraph	ST	professional translator	Subjects' translation
1	The trouble with tea ...	معضلة الشاي أنه ...	تكمّن مشكلة الشاي في...
2	There are some occasions ...	فَهِنَاكْ بَعْضُ الْمُنَاسِبَاتِ ...	قَدْ تُضْطَرُّ فِي بَعْضِ الْأَحْيَانِ أَنْ ...
3	If you are invited ...	فَإِنْ دُعِيتِ ...	إِذَا دُعِيتِ ...
4	You must not refuse ...	وَلَيْسَ لَكَ أَنْ تَرْفُضَ ...	لَا يَجِبُ عَلَيْكَ رَفْضُ ...

As Table 21 shows, the professional translator proceeded from one paragraph to the next using the two connective markers **و** and **ف**, as would normally be done in Arabic, though he/she kept paragraph breaks in accordance with the ST. On the other hand, even the subject whose translation was the best of all (a novice translator) preserved ST paragraphing structure without using paragraph linkers. Another subject's is that he translated the whole text in one paragraph but with no link between the final preceding paragraph sentence and the initial next paragraph sentence, besides confusing the use of **و** and **ف**, in inter-sentential linkage, i.e. using **و** instead of **ف** and vice versa.

Graphic/ orthographic marks

Orthographic markers include acronyms, capitalization and italics as markers of emphasis, and brackets, direct speech and quotation marks, “scare quotes”, commas and semi colons as punctuation marks.

Acronyms

With regard to the use of familiar acronyms (e.g. USA) and acronyms accompanied with their referents in full (e.g. BMC Botswana Meat Corporation), data analysis shows there does not seem to be a problem. Students simply replaced them with their referents in their translations, i.e. تعاونية لحوم بتسوانا and الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية respectively.

Capitalization

With regard to capitalization for emphasis, only three out of the eleven students who translated ‘ESSENTIAL’ in “these special cans (with a layer of lacquer) may be used with all fruits, and are ESSENTIAL for purple or red-coloured fruits such as blackcurrants and raspberries”, Text Eighteen, seem to have realised the importance of the emphasis intended by the use of the capitalization and offered the following translations: ضرورية جدا جدا *very very necessary*.

Brackets

The problem with brackets is when brackets pass unnoticed and embedded clauses are understood to be part of the text, as in the example from Text Sixteen below.

ST “I walked towards Pevensey (Pevensey Bay being the spot where William landed his army in 1066) and decided that anyone who came ashore at Cooden Beach would come face to face with quintessential England”,

The subject of ‘decided’ was mistaken by seven subjects out of the ten who translated the text:

TT مشيت شطر خليج بيفنسي، وهو البقعة التي أنزل بها وليم جيشه
وقرر أن أي شخص ينزل بشاطئ كودن يجد نفسه 1066 عام
وجهاً لوجه مع إنجلترا الحقيقية.

The translation of “decided” as *قررت* *he decided* instead of *I decided* indicates that it is William who “decided”, not Paul Theroux, the author.

Quotation marks

Similarly, failure to decode quotation marks denoting direct speech resulted in total deviation of meaning in translating “European chefs know all about prime Botswana meat”, boasts a full page advertisement on the cover of Air Botswana’s in-flight magazine”, Text Fourteen. The majority of the subjects failed to realise that the whole preceding quotation works as the complement for the verb ‘boasts’. Such an error in recognizing object-fronting resulted in serious deviation of meaning at the level of the text as a whole, as the following translation reveals: *هذه المعلومات عرفها الطباخون الأوروبيون *this information knew* من خلال قرائتهم للإعلان الموجود على غلاف مجلة الخطوط الجوية البوتسوانية *it the European cooks through their reading of the advertisement found on the cover of the Botswana Airlines magazine*. In another translation there is no reference to ‘Air Botswana’. Instead the translation of the second half of the sentence gives totally

*يعلم الطهاة الأوروبيون كل شيء عن اللحوم البوتسوانية الممتازة وذلك عن طريق wrong information: الإعلانات التي تملأ صفحات المجلات البوتسوانية التي تصلهم عن طريق البريد الجوي. In back translation the Arabic says: *European chefs know everything about the excellent Botswana meat through the advertisements that fill the pages of Botswana's magazines that arrive to them by air-mail.* This shows how a combination of punctuation and grammar object-fronting has caused comprehension problems that resulted in discourse errors. Moreover, it shows how low ranking errors at the level of language elements (subject/object) can lead to high-ranking errors at the level of the text.

Commas

Errors in subjects' translations with regard to commas and semi colons are of two types. The first type is when students failed to decode the ST punctuation, as in the translation of "noise levels at the Austerlitz terminus, Paris, have greatly been reduced", Text Five. The translation انخفضت معدلات الضجيج بشكل كبير في الطرق الفرعية الاسترالية والباريزية *Noise levels have been greatly reduced in the subsidiary Australian and Parisian roads* shows that the comma preceding the word 'Paris' seems to have created the confusion. Also the subjects who provided erroneous translations did not pick up on the journalistic convention here "..., Paris,..." in the use of commas.

The second type is the inappropriate use of comma in the TT, either because of the influence of the ST punctuation or the lack of awareness of the TL conventions. The extract below shows how ST punctuation influences students' translations. One sentence in English would probably work better as two sentences in the translation of "I had seen him once, but only long enough to shake his hand – a damp, slack, small-boned ...", Text Seven, i.e. قابلته مرة واحدة بما يكفي فقط لمصافحته. كانت يده الضئيلة رطبة ورخوة *boned ...*.

Here, two sentences solve the problem of the separation between يد and يصافح. All subjects opted for a similar punctuation to that to the ST with regard to the commas, i.e. قابلته مرة واحدة، ولكن بما يكفي فقط لمصافحة يده الضئيلة، الرطبة والرخوة. This translation is not erroneous, but in Arabic in 'shaking hands', the word يد *hand* is not normally mentioned but implied. The problem here is one of inter-relationship between punctuation and semantic problems.

Semi-colons

One of the reasons for selecting Text Nineteen among the other texts was to test how far the ST punctuation can influence the TT in the subjects' translations. While the semi-colon is rarely used in Arabic, in the translation of Text Nineteen, "if you feel tired; if anybody thinks that you might be tired; if you are nervous; ...", thirteen out of fourteen semi-colons were retained by one subject, which is considered excessive. Substituting these semi-colons with commas, i.e. إذا كنت متعباً، إذا ظن أحد أنك متعباً، إذا كنت متوتراً* was also a common error in a number of subjects' translations. What is needed here is the connective *and*، i.e. وإذا كنت متعباً، وإذا كنت متوتراً. The reason is that in Arabic, neither the semi-colon nor the comma can replace the connective و in additive serial chunks of language.

On the other hand, when a semi-colon is not used in the ST but would be appropriate in the TT, students do not seem to have the confidence to use it in the TT. For example, among the rare uses of the semi-colon in Arabic is when connecting two related sentences, such as sentences involving the meaning of "not only, but also" as in the translation of "patients not only act out parts with some effectiveness, but they employ no script in doing so", Text Two, لا يمثل المرضى الأجزاء بفاعلية فقط؛ بل لا يلجئون إلى استخدام نص مكتوب في عمل ذلك. None of the students used it as in the translation here.

4.2.1.2.3. Register and style ⁷⁷

Although the term ‘register’ itself, who talks about what, was not mentioned in the interviews, an awareness of the requirement of certain texts to conform to the register of the original in the translation was apparent, at least among those who were interviewed. One subject claimed in the interview that ‘tennis’ should remain ‘tennis’ تنس because the text is an advertisement and ‘tennis’ goes better with the text than the Arabized equivalent of it. Though this argument might not be completely convincing, nevertheless it is an indication of register awareness.

Examples of errors in register involve conventions of register being violated, as in the use of spoken language in a literary text, e.g. مشكلة الشاي انه من الاول * *the problem of tea is from the start*, for the translation of “the trouble with tea is that originally...”, Text Nineteen. Examples of register deviations are found at all levels: individual vocabulary, as well as phrases or whole sentences or fixed expressions. Table 22 below shows just an example of each type of errors made in this respect.

⁷⁷ In this section, ‘register’ refers to the conformity between the language and field and mode, ‘style’ is confined to the degree of formality/informality of such a language in the given setting.

TABLE (22): TYPES OF ERRORS IN 'REGISTER' IN SUBJECTS' TRANSLATIONS.

Text	Source Text	Subjects' translation	Back translation of subjects' translation	model Trans.
12	if I got hold of the wrong end of the stick	إذا أمسكت بالطرف الخاطئ من العصا	if I got hold of the wrong end of the stick	إذا دخلت البيوت من غير أبوابها
12	because I do not know	لجهلي	because of my ignorance	لأنني لا أعرف
17	told me	أحاطني علماً	made me aware	قال لي / أخبرني
19	you are judged	يصدر عليك حكماً	be sentenced	يحكم عليك
11	the author was stuck in a hotel in a remote area	ظل المؤلف قابلاً في فندق ناء	the author crouched/bunkered down in a remote hotel	مكث المؤلف قسراً في فندق بمنطقة نائية
4	a long time	ربحاً من الزمن	a span of time'	زمن طويل
18	store empty cans upside down	تخزين العلب الفارغة رأساً على عقب	store empty cans "topsy-turvy"	تخزين العلب الفارغة مقلوبة
13	if they (the jars) were too big	إذا كانت الجرار أكبر من اللازم	if the jars were bigger than they should	إذا كانت الجرار كبيرة جداً
3	Charm	خفة الدم	Amiability	نماعة

Even when a degree of register appreciation was shown in the interviews, there is a problem of inconsistency among subjects in their use of register markers. A good example to illustrate this problem is in one version of the expression 'I've got an eye' and 'do you know, he couldn't tell me', both in Text Ten. For the translation of the expression 'I've got an eye for celebrities' one subject rejected لي نظرة ثاقبة تميز المشاهير on the basis of register constraints, i.e. such a phrase, as she claimed, would not normally be uttered by a taxi driver in Arabic and she preferred لي نظرة ثاقبة for لي بصر. On the other hand, for 'he couldn't tell me', she used an expression !لم يستطع أن ينبس ببنت شفة, an expression which not only would not be used by a layman, but which would also require the reader to be highly literate to recognize it in the first place.

As for 'style', who talks to whom, Text Twelve *Informal Briefing to New Students*, given below, was especially selected to test style shift in translating the text into Arabic.

ST Study conditions can sometimes be difficult for you
as well. If I get hold of the wrong end of the stick
because I don't know what the problem is, I can't
help you. If you tell me what's wrong, then it's my
job to help you sort it out.

The three subjects, who were directly asked about style shift as manifested in their translation, said that a shift in style is inevitable because of the big difference between the two varieties of spoken and written Arabic. Two students said the style of the ST is informal and one said it is a mixture of formal and informal, but all stressed they made no attempt to preserve the style of the ST. One imagined the whole situation in Arabic where, as she said, the setting in Arabic would be more formal anyway, as teachers usually tend to maintain a degree of formality with students. However, her solution ... قد تمثل الظروف الدراسية في بعض الأحيان ... *the study conditions might represent sometimes ...* for “study conditions can sometimes be...”, appears too formal even in the given context.

In contrast, one main problem that seems to have confronted the students in translating Text Ten, *Letter to the Editor* from The Times is the mixture of style: Valerie Eliot's narrative and the taxi driver's actual words. The translation of 'as he got in, the driver said...' as بادره السائق بالقول *as he got on the car, the driver made the initiative by saying* provided by the professional translator would be preferable to the more spoken translation بمجرد أن دخل السيارة قال السائق *once he entered the car, the driver said*, as the former is what would have been written in a similar highly prestigious newspaper similar the Times of yesteryear. On the other hand ماذا *opted for* by one student for the translation of 'what's it all about', is too formal

and belongs to a more classic Arabic mode unlikely to be uttered by a taxi driver, besides, it is not the equivalent to the original.

4.2.1.2.4. Background knowledge

Lack of background knowledge was a real problem that resulted in serious errors that affected the text as a whole in a quite a number of subjects' translations. One reason that fifteen subjects out of twenty-eight underlined the expression 'what's it all about?' as difficult and very difficult (6 single underlining and 9 double underlining, see above) is the reference to life-existence in Russell's writings as a philosopher.

A translation of "on the left bank in Paris", Text Ten, as *الضفة الغربية لنهر السين بباريس *the west bank of the Seine river in Paris*, opted for by three students, reveals lack of background knowledge. The River Seine in fact runs east to west in Paris. What this shows is how lack of background knowledge can lead to errors that result in conveying wrong information.

Proper nouns such as Chris Evert, Rolex and Tito, for example, seem to have created real problems with respect to background knowledge. Among the four subjects who were asked whether they had heard of Chris Evert, two said they knew she was a well-known world champion tennis player and two said they had never heard of her. Some of those who managed to infer from the text that she was a tennis player, failed to realise that "Rolex" in the same text "without doubt, Chris Evert has secured her place in the Tennis Hall of Fame. ...I know that Rolex have been making watches for a long time, and "practice makes perfect" is something I agree with", Text Three, is a brand of watch.

Errors related to lack of background knowledge of course only show when the relevant element is presented incorrectly in the TT, as in the case of translating “she (Chris Evert) reveals both wit and charm” to *كان رولكس نبيها** *Rolex was witty*, Text Three. Such a translation was apparently triggered by the assumption on the part of the subject that Rolex was, as revealed in the interview, the other player Chris Evert was going to play against. Other translations revealed, as confirmed in the interviews, that Rolex was thought to be Chris Evert’s secretary or bodyguard. As a result, two subjects gave this translation: *كان يقوم بالحراسة لمدة طويلة** *Rolex has been guarding Chris for a long time*.

On some occasions, when an error does not result, then there is no way to detect from the translation that some background knowledge is lacking. This was seen when the student asked during the interview whether ‘Tito’ in Text Eight, was a Chinese leader. Another student said “I do not know who ‘Tito’ is, but he must be a famous person”. A generation problem, it seems, arises when figures of earlier eras are unknown to student translators. The question then becomes whether it would matter if the trainee translator knew just that Tito was a famous person and not necessarily a former president of Yugoslavia, as long as the translation is correct.

Lack of background knowledge is mainly a result of cultural disparity, as will be explained below.

4.2.1.2.5. Culture

In their commentaries, subjects made reference to culture as a translation problem in a general remark rather than pointing at certain instances, e.g. “The understanding of English culture is so difficult that I can’t understand the text in English exactly. This,

of course, hinders my translation of such texts” and “not to understand the text is due to my ignorance of the culture”. Below some culture problems that were manifested in students translation as errors are discussed. These problems are: SL culture-bound items, TL cultural values interference, humour, religion and politics.

Despite subjects’ repeated mention in the interviews of the problem of cultural differences between the SL and the TL as a source of difficulty in understanding the ST, some showed a reasonable awareness of some SL cultural aspects, but the majority made errors because of the lack of cultural background.

SL Culture-bound items

Among the highly confusing expressions for subjects was the expression ‘you have tea for tea’, Text Nineteen, as the second ‘tea’ refers to the evening meal in the British society, which led to the strategy of omission by some (cf. Chapter Three: Section Two, 3.2.2.5.: Culture). The words ‘couples’ and ‘mortgage’ in “the recent rise in interest rates has meant that many couples are facing an uphill struggle to keep up their monthly mortgage repayments”, Text Four, also caused difficulty. The burden of mortgage, whatever its form, is more the responsibility of the man of the family in Arabic social life. Moreover, the whole idea of mortgage, with all its associations, relates to the cultural system of British life. This was pointed out in the interview by at least four subjects who were directly asked about the word. As for ‘couples’, the concept of ‘couples’ in British cultural life does not have an exact equivalent in Arabic that covers the whole semantic field of the word including its cultural aspect (cf. Chapter Three, Section Two, 3.3.1.1.2. Lexical Voids).

TL Cultural values interference

An error that raised a question of target culture influence was in the translation of 'but he was seldom a guest' in "he was usually invited to our embassy parties. He was, somehow, on the permanent guest list. But he was seldom a guest", Text Seven. While in the text the last sentence means "he rarely came", i.e. نادراً ما أتى/حضر, some translated it literally as نادراً ما كان ضيفاً *rarely he was a guest*. By implication, as used by a good number of the students and as revealed in the interviews, this translation means 'he felt at home'. This interpretation derives from the Arabic formula 'you are not a guest' said to guests as a gesture of extreme hospitality meaning 'you are a member of the family', i.e. 'feel at home'. This translation can also be attributed to a literal translation of the original, an error combining different causes. However, such a translation reveals a serious comprehension problem of the ST. For example, when a subject was asked about how often he thought the guest came to the parties of the embassy, he said, "a lot".

Humour

A number of texts used in the study exhibit humour in one way or another, but what students seem to have missed is how to grasp such an aspect of STs, let alone transfer it into their translations. In all the texts, they seem to have been occupied by grasping the meaning of the individual items and the information conveyed rather than the overall message, i.e. they were after a precision of meaning which quite often led to literal translation in which the humour was lost. Moreover, the inability to decode certain key elements in the text was a main cause of the lack of appreciation of the intended humour, e.g. the fact that Lord Russell couldn't answer the question of the taxi driver 'what's it all about', intended to be a joke, was not thought "a big deal";

what was important to the subjects was rendering the components of the fixed expression and the rest of the text.

Religion

Six out of twelve students underlined 'the miracle', Text Thirteen, as being difficult, three as a single noun-phrase and three as part of the passive. Furthermore, those who translated it do not seem to have been aware of the reference to the miracle performed by Jesus in Cana, as the different translations given to 'Cana' revealed. Failing to realise that 'the miracle' is a key word behind the whole paradox in the text (see Irony above) indicates that the students did not grasp the religious aspect of its inclusion.

Politics

Data analysis and information gathered during the interviews reveal two types of problems related to politics. The first is that of political terms, e.g. two students underlined 'left-wing', Text Eight, and one of them double underlined the term. Sometimes the term was dropped altogether or translated wrongly, e.g. الجهة اليسارية *the left side* and الجماعات اليسارية *the left groups*.

The second problem is one of awareness of the general discourse. For example, Text Eight (Memoirs by Noel Coward), did not alert students towards the western attitude against Soviet Russia at a certain period. Moreover, the question by one student "Was Tito a Chinese leader?" while another could not give a clue of who he might be, apart from being a prominent figure (see Background Knowledge above) does indicate lack of political awareness and a generation problem, as stated above. In contrast, a comment by one postgraduate student about Text Seven, *The London Embassy* in which she said "the text reminded me of the secret police and intelligence service"

shows awareness of the general discourse of contemporary politics. Moreover, the inclusion of الفاتح the Conqueror to precede “William” in “I walked towards Pevensey (Pevensey Bay being the spot where William landed his army in 1066)”, Text Sixteen, by some post-graduate students indicates how important it is to be aware of historical figures of the past to decide about the strategy of addition for clarification.

To conclude this section of Text-level errors, one outcome of the discussion above is that errors in this category usually resemble a combination of more than one aspect, e.g. an error which involves misunderstanding irony can also involve a lack of background knowledge and insufficient awareness of cultural dimensions.

4.2.2. Conclusion

From the above analysis, we conclude that students faced a number of translation problems which vary in type and difficulty. Students' underlinings show that fixed expressions, compounds, passive forms, culturally bound elements and long stretches of language that include consecutive modifiers and embedded phrases are viewed as among the highly problematic. Among all these, the latter two: culturally bound elements and long stretches of language that include consecutive modifiers and embedded phrases, were signalled as ‘very difficult’ by double underlining.

In terms of error counts, figures show a significantly high proportion of errors resulting from wrong vocabulary choice. The main reason seems to be wrong inference of vocabulary items or improper dictionary use. At the text-level, errors often resulted from failure to decode long embedded phrases that embody discourse elements. This is supported by information extracted during the interviews where answers to questions concerning these issues revealed serious comprehension

problems. In such cases, students were led to opt for strategies such as addition to compensate for their wrong interpretation in an attempt to make sense of their translations, or omission to get rid of the troubling elements. The outcome in such cases was always the production of an erroneous or inadequate translation. Inevitably, the result was errors in transferring the ST message.

Finally, quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data collected from both the translation product and retrospection of the two groups, undergraduate students and postgraduate students, reveal that the latter group performed much better than the former regarding less crude errors, better handling of text-level problems and better choice of translation strategies.

In Chapter Five, Discussion, I present an interpretation of the results and findings.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

5.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the results obtained from the two studies, researcher case-study (pre-study) and multi-subject study (main-study), Chapters Three and Four respectively, will be discussed with reference to the literature.

To summarize, the aim of the present project is to establish a detailed taxonomy of translation problems in translating from English into Arabic (research question One) and classify them into categories (research question Two) while trying to provide a tentative ranking to the problems according to difficulty (research question Three, cf. 1.5). Also, while trying to trace errors to their causes, I investigated what role proficiency plays in translation performance with regard to committing only certain errors but not others and adopting certain strategies and techniques (Research question Four).

I begin this discussion chapter by presenting the outcome of the research as a whole in the form of a model of classification of translation problems in translating from English into Arabic as developed through the study.

5.1. Classification model of translation problems

This model of translation problems is a combination of the results obtained from both studies (researcher pre-case-study and multi-subject main study). It largely reflects the errors categorization described in Chapter Four. The distinction "incorrect vs. inappropriate error" however, is not used as a level of categorization, but rather as a severity measure that will be a key input for ranking the translation problems.

Table 23 below illustrates the final taxonomy model as evolved in the three stages of the study from a simple, non-hierarchical categorization (Chapter Three) through a hierarchical system incorporating severity (Chapter Four) into the present taxonomy (Chapter Five), which is based on error types.

TABLE (23): A TAXONOMY OF TRANSLATION PROBLEMS.

Categories of translation problems				
Supra-categories	Main categories	Sub-categories	Sub-sub-categories	
Problems of Comprehension and problems of production: ST & TT	“Micro/language problems”	Grammar	Morphology	
			Prepositions	
			Tense	
			Articles	
			Word order	
			Passive	
			Negation	
			Conditionals	
		Vocabulary	polysemy	
			Divergence	
			Derivation	
			Technical terms	
			Proper nouns	
			compounds	
			Collocations	
			Phrasal verbs	
			Fixed expressions	
			Connotative meaning	
			Synonyms	
			Near Synonyms	
			Word formation	
			Lexical voids	
		Spelling	Arabization	
			Invention	
			Morphological spelling	
			Dialect influence and Hypercorrection	
			Slips	
		“Macro/text-level problems”	Rhetorical and Stylistic Devices	Metaphor and simile
				Repetition and parallelism
				Satire
				Irony
	Puns and Alliteration			
	Cohesion		Reference	
			Substitution	
			Ellipsis	
			Conjunctions	
			Theme and rheme	
			Paragraphing	
			Graphic /orthographic marks	
			Register and style	
	Background Knowledge			
	Culture		SL culture-bound item/s	
			TL cultural values interference	
			Humour	
			Religion	
Politics				
Problems of transfer process	Strategies		Problem realisation and mental search for solutions	
			Physical search for solutions	
			Drafting and editing	
			Back translation	
	Techniques		Addition	Addition of information
		Addition of stress		
		Alternative translations		
		Omission	Expansion	
			Omission of items	
			Omission of section/s	
	Analogy and coining			
	Other process factors			

The above taxonomy of translation problems includes four category levels: supra-categories, main categories, sub-categories and sub-sub-categories. One supra category combines problems of ST comprehension with problems of TT production; the other involves problems related to the transfer process. The areas that compose the two supra-categories have long been referred to in the field of translation (cf. Chapter Two, Literature Review), were suspected to be causes of errors in this study and will be discussed here. However, what the findings of this study add to previous studies is details of problems in the main categories, the sub and sub-sub-categories, illustrated by means of real examples using authentic materials that have been empirically tested against two multi abilities groups of undergraduate and postgraduate students.

ST comprehension and TT production cover the two main categories Micro/Language Problems (individual language items or small language units) and Macro/Text-Level problems (long stretches of language or the text as a whole). Problems of the Transfer on the other hand, refer to faulty procedures (Strategies and Techniques) opted for by the translator while carrying out the task of translation. Problems of the Transfer Process inclusive of the main and sub-categories were derived from a re-examination of the Chapter Four taxonomy (Table 6). Each of the category levels - supra-categories (ST comprehension and TT production and transfer processes), main-categories (micro-language problems, macro-text level problems and strategies and techniques) their sub-categories and sub-sub-categories - will be discussed below after comparing the present taxonomy with other existing ones.

5.2. The taxonomy: resemblances to and differences from others

The developed taxonomy of translation problems presented here shares certain features with those previously reported in the literature with reference to translating

between different languages and in translating from English into Arabic. In comparison with other empirical models, this taxonomy combines what some (e.g. Lam 1995: 912-913, Fang 1959: 110) in the field of empirical research in translation call problems of comprehension, problems of production (re-expression in Bastin's terms – 2000: 231-245), and strategies of transfer. In this respect, it has some similarity with Newmark's model of "typical and global translation problems" (1980, where he combines content/language problems and methodological problems, though Newmark's system is anecdotal in nature rather than strictly empirical. Its division into individual language problems and text-level problems bears resemblance to Wilss's (1995) classification of macrocontextual vs. microcontextual problems (cf. Literature Review chapter). However, the present one adds more details than Wilss's. In fact, in its detailed classification, this taxonomy bears more resemblance to Blight's topically structured taxonomy "Translation Problems from A to Z" (1992), though Blight gives more space to categories specifically related to Bible translation (e.g. old testament quotation and key biblical term) (cf. 2.2.3). The same occurs with Nida's classification of problems of content and problems of form (1976). The four categories proposed by Nord (1987 a, 1991: 151):

- (a) text-specific translation problems,
- (b) pragmatic translation problems,
- (c) cultural translation problems,
- (d) linguistic translation problems,

on the other hand, correspond roughly to sub-categories of language and text level problems in the present model, though usually under different labels.

An added value of the present taxonomy is its sophisticated, multi-level hierarchical structure, which stems from a very thorough empirical testing looking at a wide range of genres.

With regard to translating into Arabic, in Gazala's (1995) categorization of grammatical problems, lexical problems and stylistic problems, though they are comparatively comprehensive, many of the high ranking problems identified in the present project are missing and the examples to illustrate problems are fabricated and out of context (cf. Chapter Two, Sec. Two.). Shaheen (1997), on the other hand, in his empirical study in relation to teaching translation in the Arab world, refers to what he calls "text-related problematical areas", namely "connectivity", "punctuation", "paragraph organization" that are limited in concept. He looks at them as occurring in the TT situation. The present project, by contrast, looks at ST and TT problems, and high and low ranking problems, using authentic examples.

This study, although comprehensive, has not addressed what Nida and Taber (1969) call personal problems in translation (cf. Chapter Two, Section Two) as it focuses on issues of text rather than on the translator. Nevertheless, it does reveal, as a key issue, deficiencies in writing skills in one's own language, referred to by Newmark (1981: 9) as "the problem of how to write well in the target language" (which is usually one's own language) and which Masoud (1988: 11) regards as a "personal problem" (see Chapter Six, Conclusion).

However, the key merit of the present taxonomy is the thoroughness of its empirical base. It is generated by empirical research based on findings relying on self-reflection (Chapter Three) and statistical data from multiple users (Chapter Four). Moreover, what this study has revealed is not only the type of errors made in translating from

English to Arabic, but also the relative importance of the various categories (in terms of error-count and difficulty rating). This issue will be discussed below, but first I present the taxonomy of problems.

5.3. The taxonomy: categorization of problems

Below, the main categories in Table 23, Problems of Comprehension, Problems of Production and Problems of Transfer Process, inclusive of their sub-categories, are presented and discussed.

5.3.1. Problems of comprehension and problems of production (ST/TT)

While using the think-aloud technique may well be feasible to distinguish between ST and TT oriented activities (Breedveld, 2002: 97), it is only occasionally that one can signal an error as exclusively SL or TL. For example, compounds, phrasal verbs and fixed expressions may present ST problems that can result in errors in the TT. Moreover, the interference factor in subjects' translations, which indicates their inclination to treat the two languages similarly, involves transferring SL properties to TL (e.g. punctuation), and again shows an inter-relationship between ST and TT problems.

Results from the qualitative analysis of the data show that many of the errors at the level of individual language items and some of those at text level are due to lack of competence in SL and/or TL which that can be attributed to inadequate command of the languages per se more than to translation skills.

Contrary to Bastin's (2000) suggestion that errors in students' translation should be largely attributed to what is called re-expression rather than comprehension, findings

from the present study show lack of comprehension representing a significant cause of errors. In the products of a number of the subjects, there are clear indications of misunderstanding, sometimes complete lack of comprehension of the text as whole and sometimes partial misunderstanding of parts of it. Total lack of comprehension often resulted, in the worst cases, in subjects abandoning the task after having started the translation or not even attempting translating it, leaving a note saying, “very difficult” in the space provided for the translation. On other occasions, it resulted in an almost complete alteration of the text in the translation, as in the case of the texts dropped from the evaluation for being too distorted to be assessed at any level. In particular, serious comprehension problems arise when students fail to decode and disentangle long series of elements that comprise a long complex sentence, i.e. the problem is one of understanding the function of complex syntax (e.g. “‘European chefs know all about prime Botswana meat’, boasts a full page advertisement on the cover of Air Botswana’s in-flight magazine”) or the interaction of difficult lexis and complex syntactic strings (e.g. “Psychiatrically staged scenes”, cf. Chapter Four). Features of partial misunderstanding at the level of individual vocabulary items were manifested in leaving parts of the text untranslated, while indicating the missing part by a space within the translation (cf. Chapter Four, Section Two: Omission). Sometimes, partial misunderstanding resulted in errors, as in the case of confusing “stiff” for “staff”, for example (cf. 4.2.1.1.2, where spelling interferes with meaning). Even with some of those who stated that the problem was not in understanding the ST but in how to convey the idea in the TT, when asked specific questions about certain instances, their answers actually revealed serious comprehension problems, as the examples cited later show.

When comprehension is not a problem, the reconstruction phase is not necessarily without pitfalls. Indeed, defects in first-language literacy – the TL in our case – are a key cause of errors in the TT. Findings from the study revealed that the assumption that native speakers automatically possess an excellent command of their native language will not invariably be true. For example, errors, resulting from inability to distinguish between *أَكسب* transitive and *اكتسب* intransitive for ‘gained’, *يخنق* transitive and *يختنق* intransitive for ‘choke’, and *غير مرتاح* transitive and *غير مريح* intransitive for ‘uncomfortable’, which led to serious errors at the level of the text, is a basic TL issue that has to do with understanding how transitivity works in the system. Even when competent in general topics, they might not be necessarily well-versed in specialized areas of language. Moreover, as data shows, even those student trainees who might have full control over sentence-level grammar of the language and a considerable lexical repertoire may have problems deploying grammar and lexis to meet specific stylistic requirements.

Regarding incompetence in the mother tongue in the case of Arab students, Rosenhouse (1989: 132-133), however, blames many errors related to incompetence in TL on ‘diglossia’⁷⁸. Analysis of the data obtained does not reveal support for such a claim, as apart from few instances such as sound mixing (e.g. ‘fricatives’ with ‘stops’ as like in the case *ذ* vs. *د*, (which is no more than “a local vs. standard” problem that could occur in any language), no interference from colloquial Arabic forms was

⁷⁸ Ferguson, (1959: 323), who is regarded as the inventor of the term ‘diglossia’, defines the term as: “a relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include a standard or regional standard), there is a very divergent, highly confined ... superposed variety, the vehicle of a large respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education, and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes, but is not used for most written and formal spoken purposes, but is not used by any sector of community for ordinary conversation”. He describes such situation as: “one particular kind of standardization where two varieties of the language exist side by side throughout the community with each having a definite role to play” (ibid. 232).

recorded. Moreover, Rosenhouse's claim could be counter-argued by the high quality of the translation of some students, implying that the problem is one of literacy in mother tongue, which can be considered as a worldwide general educational problem rather than specifically one for Arab students (cf. 6.5. Recommendations for Further Research). Lack of L1 competence, for example, is often anecdotally remarked on from a modern-languages point of view as a problem affecting student translators who have studied the L2 rather than the L1 for many years. According to Brunette (2000: 179) a trainee translator who can write an original TL text perfectly well, but cannot provide a decent translated TL text faces an interference problem.

The above was a discussion of ST comprehension and TT production as sources of errors. Below, the two main categories that are directly linked to this supra-category will be discussed: Micro-Language Problems and Macro-Text Level Problems (Table 23).

5.3.1.1. Micro-language and macro-text-level translation problems

The division between individual language units and text-level units is well established in the literature. In the present study, while numeric information was obtained in the case of language errors, in the case of text-level problems no exact figures to calculate errors were possible. However, indications of general trends based on qualitative analysis of the data show a tendency among students to focus on small units (words and phrases) of language at the expense of larger sections of the text. This agrees with Olk's (2002: 121) finding on translating culture, for example:

Students' main problems in translating culture was fixation on questionable word-level parameters at the expense of text-level processes.

Such fixation Olk attributes in some cases to teaching practice, which focuses students' attention in translation on small text units (ibid).

Below, problems belonging to the main, sub and sub-sub categories (see Table 23) are discussed category by category with reference to the type of errors committed and students' perceptions of what is problematic. The types of errors in subjects' translations discussed below range from very basic language errors to highly subtle text-level errors that often can hardly be detected without a prior knowledge of the ST. Examples of the former type of errors are those such as wrong interpretation of simple, frequently used ST words/expressions or basic spelling, or grammar errors. As for the latter, they appear in errors such as translating irony at face value or disrupted text cohesion.

5.3.1.1.1. Micro/ language problems

Language problems include grammar, vocabulary and spelling, inclusive of their sub-sub categories, each of which will be discussed below.

Grammar

At the level of segments or small units of grammar, what the numeric data show is mainly basic grammar errors in the TT where the rules of the TL grammar were breached. Such errors of morphology, prepositions, tense, and definite and indefinite articles might not cause a serious communication problem, though as indicated earlier they “undermine” the surface quality of the translation, making it appear defective and flawed. As argued earlier, errors which violate the system of the target language but are not manifestations of the lack of translation skills per se, should be seen as an indication of problems in mother tongue literacy. A close look at some TL errors in

grammar/spelling discussed below would probably also reveal a problem of poor proofreading skills. However, besides text-level syntactic problems, which also often ST-based, a number of errors in word order, passive forms and negation, as the data show are no doubt caused by ST influence and are a symptom of translating over-literally (with regard to ST interference in Translation and other related issues, see Steinbach 1981)⁷⁹ Moreover, analysis of the error data and students' underlining shows that the major ST grammar problems, though classified as language problems, became text-level ones when the ST contained long structures that involved embedded clauses or strings of adjectives.

Below, the sub-sub categories of grammar are discussed while referring to evidence from the data analysis that pinpoint the nature of the problem.

Morphology

As the data show, errors in the TL grammar, e.g. *هذين المظهرين المتناقضين instead of هذان المظهران المتناقضان for the translation of "these two contrasting facets", extended to include areas of case-ending, subject-verb concord, gender, adjective and numeral concord. These are considered basics of Standard Arabic grammar, which are taught at a very early age, even though Standard Arabic is not the language at home. Arguably, university and post-graduate students should not be making such errors. A number of errors in these areas could be only slips, but for lack of concrete evidence

⁷⁹ Steinbach (1981: 258) explains the phenomenon of basic errors in grammar in the translation of university students as follows: "One must assume that a university student of English is aware of the rules concerning subject-complement concord. Now it seems to be obvious that for some reason he is unable to apply his knowledge of these rules under all circumstances ... In our opinion this sort of L1-interference constitutes a type of error that can neither be regarded as a systematic deficiency of competence nor as an unsystematic lapse of performance" (cf. Corder 1967: 166). Such errors could perhaps be explained by a context-dependent inability of the learner to apply his linguistic competence, a systematic loss of cognitive control over linguistic performance due to interference of the base language (cf. Burgschmidt 1997: 135 f.).

such as that shown in errors of spelling, it was not always possible to isolate slips from genuine errors, even in the case of variable use of grammatical rules, e.g. يواجهوا and يواجهو for “face” in the sentence “many couples are facing an uphill struggle to keep up their monthly mortgage repayments” (cf. 4.2.1.1.2.).

Prepositions

Prepositions are recognizably problematic in translation between Arabic and English in early training because there are no one to one equivalents between English and Arabic. Though rough near equivalents to prepositions are given in English/Arabic dictionaries, this seems to have contributed to some of the errors in students products. Although some of the errors detected in the data indicate that students fell into the trap of translating prepositions literally, others also appear due to local dialectic influence (e.g. اختناقهم من الأدخنة *they choke in fumes* instead of اختناقهم بالأدخنة).

Tense

Since tense is less “detailed” in Arabic than in English, it is not a major problem in translating from English to Arabic, as the figure of average errors (0.23) shows. Comparatively, to average errors in other sub-sub-categories the figure is relatively insignificant. However, students’ failure to translate the effect of perfect present continuous in “Rolex has been making watches for long time” is an indication of its difficulty. Moreover, some complex tenses, like the present perfect, tempted students to overtranslate (making too strong what’s relatively unimportant in the ST/SL).

Definite/indefinite articles

The high percentage of errors in adding the definite article *ال* to *غير* and not to the adjective, e.g. *الغير مناسبة* instead of *غير المناسبة* for “ill-fitting”, Table 16, Chapter Four, is not surprising. It is a common error that appears even in the writing of highly educated individuals but, strictly speaking, it is still breaking the rules of grammar. However, more serious is the missing of the definite article as a generic indicator in the translation with many students failing to realise the difference between English and Arabic in this respect.

Word order

Although Arabic shifts word order fairly freely (Dickins et al 2002:115), it is sometimes strict (see also Yusuf 1983). In comparison with English, Arabic differs in word order even at the level of the arrangement of some phrases.

This difference caused several problems in the excessive use of nominal sentences in student's translations, e.g. *القاعة الرئيسية تتسع لـ ...* instead of *... تتسع القاعة الرئيسية لـ* for “the main auditorium will accommodate ...”, which other researchers have also reported (e.g. Alghussain, 2003), as being an influence of the ST structure. Students who used nominal sentences indiscriminately do not seem to realise that nominal sentences are marked in Arabic and more prominent in certain text types (mainly journalistic texts as an influence of English journalistic style). In many cases, transferring ST word order to the TT resulted in the wrong positioning of the adverb. Another case of ST influence, which is not only a phenomenon among students but among writers in general, is in the use of the coordinated genitives, e.g. *احترام وإطاعة القانون* for the translation of “law-abiding”, instead of *احترام القانون وإطاعته* (cf. 4.2.1.1.2.). This

phenomenon is becoming more common in Arabic journalistic style as an influence of English word order, as emphasized by Bader (1994: 95). However, in terms of grammar proper, it is still considered erroneous though it could pass unnoticed as far as many ordinary readers are concerned.

Passive

What students seem to lack, as the data collected show, is knowledge of the differences in the use of passive between the two languages and the availability of alternative devices to tackle passive problems in Arabic. In the literature, a distinction is often made between agentive and agentless passive. For agentive passive, Cantarino (1975: 53) points out that “Arabic has found a way to express the agent in passive constructions; and that is by using a prepositional phrase with instrumental meaning”. By this he means the use of one of the following: *من قبل*, *من*, *ب*, *بواسطة*, *على يد*, *بسبب* and others⁸⁰ (cf. Khalil, 1993: 172). Among all these devices students only used *من قبل*. In any case, students’ tendency to stick to the use of passive whenever used in the ST indicates that they are unaware of the fact that when the agent is known, Arabic prefers an active structure (cf. Rosenhouse, 1988: 101). Similarly, Khalil (1993) found that more experienced translators tend to render English agentive passive sentences into Arabic agentive passive sentences far less often than less experienced translators (ibid. 172). To avoid the use of passive verb forms, two major forms of active verbs which govern nominalized complements *تم* and *قام + ب* / *...* literally meaning “conducted” and “completed” respectively may be used. These two verbs are

⁸⁰ One more common device is increasingly in use is *جراء*, e.g. *قتل شاب فلسطيني جراء إصابته برصاص الجيش الإسرائيلي*. The sentence is roughly translated to: *a Palestinian youth was killed (as a result) of being shot by the Israeli army*.

used as “dummy” verbs while their nominal complements serve as nominalized passive verb (ibid, 98). Findings from the present project, however, show that over/mis-use of these two devices also leads to errors in students’ translations, as will be discussed below.

Negation

Of the two phenomena observed in the data analysis with respect to negation (4.2.1.1.2.), the first related to the degree of literacy in mother tongue (i.e. the negator in Arabic comes after the verb and not before, e.g. لا يجب ألا, as in the majority of students’ translations) and the other related to failing to adopt the right technique in translating (i.e. what is expressed by positive forms in the ST is expressed by negative in the TT and vice versa, Fawcett, 1987); both reveal the diversity of translation problems even at the level of sub-sub-categories.

Conditionals

While excessive use of conditionals should not be a problem, as in Arabic one can use as many conditionals as one chooses (see Dickins et al, 2002: 176), the problem in many of the students’ translations is the literal rendering of conditionals, sticking only to one conditional marker إذا and ignoring other alternatives such as لو and إن. However, the fact that one postgraduate student opted for the omission of the conditionals and used a hypothetical opening statement لتفرض أنك طالباً عندي: *suppose you are my student* for “if you were my student” means he had an awareness of how to manipulate the language to serve the purpose, which others lacked.

The above was an account of problems related to segments or units of grammar. Below problems related to vocabulary are discussed.

Vocabulary

Numeric count of individual language errors in subjects' translations (cf. Table 11) revealed a significant prominence of vocabulary issues as compared to other problems. This finding agrees with similar findings by Rosenhouse (1989: 130-131) and contrasts with Shaheen (1997) who gives priority to "connectivity", "punctuation" and "paragraph organization" rather than to lexis and syntax. Errors in vocabulary can be both a ST and a TT problem. Findings from the assessment of the data show that a major cause of this high proportion of errors in this category is the tendency to translate over-literally⁸¹.

A root problem of all translation is the fact that the semantic field of a word, the entire complex network of meanings it signifies, rarely if ever matches exactly the semantic field of any one word in any other language (Holmes 1988: 9). Translating over-literally seems to be the most common problem in students' translations. The literal meaning of words, it seems, strikes first in students' minds, with the consequence of errors in meaning. The findings from this study show that errors relating to over-literal translation result in deviation of the meaning from the ST, and represent a far higher frequency than any other sub-category. This correlates with Bastin's (2000: 235) finding. In the researcher case-study too, criticism in the feedback from professional translators also focused on the occasional tendency to translate over-literally in a number of the translations sent for 'a second opinion'. Where defects in mother tongue competence were related to vocabulary choice, problems manifested

⁸¹ The term 'over-literal' is used here as erroneous translation. It differs from 'literal translation': a translation strategy identified by (Delisle et al. 1999: 154) as "retaining the formal features of the source text, but conforming generally to the grammar of the target language" (quoted in Bastin 2000:235).

themselves in inability to distinguish meanings expressed by different words and in the inappropriate use of certain expressions.

Below, each of the sub-sub categories is discussed. Some that share similar problems are discussed under one heading.

Polysemy, divergence, synonyms and near synonyms

Analysis of the data shows that the impact of errors was more trivial with synonyms (SL synonym and TL synonym) than with polysemy. For example, in the researcher case-study, choice between TL synonyms to reflect the ST synonyms would result in slight differences in meaning in the TT (e.g. إرهاق and تعب for “tiredness” and “fatigue” respectively, cf. 3.2.1.1.2.). In the multi-subject main study, on the other hand, TL polysemy resulted in serious divergence errors in the TT (e.g. نار for fire instead of حريق and مصرف for bank instead of ضفة (cf. 4.2.1.1.2)).

In the case of errors based on TL near synonyms, students often gave a non-literal equivalent where a literal translation would be more appropriate, i.e. “seats” should be translated to مقاعد not كراسي *chairs* as chosen in some students’ translations. It is interesting as many errors resulted from students’ tendency to often translate over-literally. The underlying cause might be that they do not pay much attention to fine lines that differentiate between one word and another belonging to the same semantic field. In other cases students replaced a hyponym “barbarous bird” with a misleading hyponym طائر (همجي) *sparrow* instead of (همجي) عصفور. On some other occasions, they replaced a specialist register “chefs” طهاة with common register طبّاخين *cooks* (cf. 4.2.1.1.2).

Derivation

The fact that Arabic derivational morphology is often highly systematic should facilitate matters in finding equivalents. However, data analysis show that a number of students, when they do not know or they do not pay attention to the derivational changes, tend to confuse forms that look superficially similar. An example often quoted to explain derivation in Arabic is the three-letters stem form كتب *wrote* and its derivations belonging to the same semantic field, e.g. مكتبة *book*, كتابة *writing*, مكتبة *library*, مكتب *office*, كتيب *manual* and so forth. The examples of errors shown in some students' translation مملبات *tins (filled cans)* instead of علب *cans (empty)*, مريح *comfortable (inanimate)* instead of مرتاح *comfortable (animate)* and يخنق *strangle* instead of يخنق *choke*, means that those students lack basic knowledge of the derivational mechanism of their mother tongue.

Technical terms

In translating into Arabic the problem of translating terminology is by no means new. Bahumaid (1994: 135) refers to it as going back to the Abbasid era. One complaint which persists concerns inconsistencies in the use of terminological equivalence, a problem not unique to Arabic (cf. Nkweuti-Azeh, 1995).

Although translating technical terms is an area that is gaining the special attention of researchers, this study was not designed to fully investigate this area. Texts used in this study were mainly selected to test general features of English rather than features related to specific text-type, though, a significant minority of texts did contain specialist terminology, e.g. Text Five and Six which come from New Scientist. Accordingly, no large numeric data was obtained to generate findings about specialist

or scientific terminology. However, evidence from the data which included scientific terminology or specialist professional terms (e.g. 'psychodrama') shows that such terms can cause serious problems, but with available resources and expertise these can range between very difficult and easy to solve, as feedback from a professional translator shows (cf. Text 18: 107, 3.2.1.1.9).

Proper nouns

Findings from the analysis of the data show that most problems related to proper nouns are either related to background knowledge or spelling. Whether errors are a manifestation of a lack of background knowledge, e.g. translating "Cana of Galilee" as خان الخليلي *Khan El-Khalili* or a case of "false friends" in which spelling partly plays a part in the confusion, e.g. translating "Austerlitz" as أستراليا *Australia* and "Moscow" as مكسيك *Mexico* (cf. 4.2.1.1.2.), proper nouns undoubtedly pose problems in translation for trainee learners, as emphasized by Newmark (1993: 15) "proper names are a translation difficulty in any text".

With regard to translating proper nouns, information obtained during the retrospection phase and from students' notes indicates that spelling was attributed importance. The distinction made by students in this study between 'untranslatable' proper nouns starting with a capital letter and common nouns correlates with Olk's (2002: 125) finding. The impact is sometimes students' inclination not to look proper nouns up in the dictionary or make errors in spelling. However, this attitude was not always consistent as students sometimes attempted to translate proper nouns. When they did not consult the dictionary, their translation was literal and often did not make sense, e.g. "Latin Quarter" الربع الاتيني. However, this is also a case of lack of world

knowledge (areas of Paris), see below, compounded by lack of vocabulary knowledge ("Quarter" referring to part of the inner city).

Compounds

Findings from the data analysis confirm that compounds constitute a real problem for students in translating from English into Arabic. More importantly, the number of underlinings (both single and double) of various forms of compounds indicates that students perceive them as being so. Also, the fact that compounds gained special attention in students' commentaries and in their verbal reporting in the interviews is revealing in this respect. What is significant about this is that students might have tried strategies for reaching solutions but often failed. What is interesting is that, despite the frustration compounds caused when students were carrying out the task of translation, compounds were among the few categories that gained students' fascination as being unique and SL specific.

Collocations

Translating collocations is a well known problem in translation. In translating into Arabic, Heliel (1997: 286) claims:

On the whole, the translator's dilemma is not with understanding the English collocation, which more or less may go smoothly, but with the speed of finding an appropriate Arabic collocational equivalent.

What findings from the analysis of the data add is the fact that in a number of cases students were unable to realise which words do not collocate together in their mother tongue, e.g. *عصفور* *sparrow* does not collocate with *همجي* *barbarous* and *واجهة* *front* does not collocate with *خلفية* *back*.

Phrasal verbs

A number of instances of defective translations of phrasal verbs in students' translations show an inability to realise the difference between an ordinary verb and a phrasal verb, as this quote shows: "I only know "sort" but not "sort out", one student said. Students also found difficulty in distinguishing between meanings of phrasal verbs in different contexts, e.g. "pick up" (lift up by hand) and "pick up" (give a ride in a car). A related problem in translating phrasal verbs, as indications from the data analysis show, is the fact that students rely heavily on the dictionary while, as Heliel (1997: 287) emphasizes, English-Arabic dictionaries often suffer from shortcomings in phrasal verbs. The fact that phrasal verbs are often missing from dictionaries is also emphasized by Newmark (1993: 30).

Fixed expressions

"Idiomatic expressions are notoriously difficult to translate" (Duff 1989: 237), though there have been some attempts, working within a contrastive approach mostly based on trainer intuition rather than research, which have succeeded in providing lengthy bilingual lists of idiomatic expressions. See, for example, Al Kenai (1985). Awwad (1990: 66) and Hawas (1990: 64-65), who also acknowledge that English and Arabic idioms constitute a major area of difficulty for translators and interpreters.

The heart of the problem in translating fixed expressions, as the analysis of the data shows, lies in students translating the individual elements literally, not realizing that the expression is a fixed one. This was shown by single underlining or double underlining of only parts of the fixed expression as being difficult or very difficult.

However, as Table 21 (Chapter Four, Section Two) shows, a good number of students did realise that the expressions were fixed and used idiomatically, though only some of them managed to translate them properly.

What is also striking from the data collected is the clear difference between students, both undergraduate and postgraduate, on the one hand, and professionals on the other, as exemplified by one of the translators whose translation was used as a model against which students translations were checked. For example, all students translated “If I get hold of the wrong end of the stick” literally while the professional translator expressed the ST meaning using an equivalent fixed expression: إن دخلت البيوت من غير أبوابها. This literally translates back to English as: *If I entered homes not via their doors*. A different problem experienced by the researcher during the case-study is when a non-idiomatic expression could be translated idiomatically in the TL but such a translation can only be reached after a number of attempts and consultations with informants (cf. 3.2.1.1.1.).

Connotative meaning

Among the types of connotative meanings listed and discussed by Dickins et al (2002: 66-74) - attitudinal, associative, affective, allusive, collocative, reflected, and others - associative meaning is signalled here as being the most prominent problem. In the researcher case-study, the researcher was aware of the loss of the connotative meaning associated with the word “circus” with regard to social perception, i.e. a socially low perception can be inferred from “what Balanchine had not told him was that the music had been commissioned by a circus” (cf. 3.2.2.3.). There is similar loss of the connotative meaning associated with “Sunday afternoon” in religious Protestant families (to which D. H. Lawrence belonged) when translated to ظهيرة الأحد (cf.

3.2.2.5.2.). In the multi-subject study, on the other hand, subjects do not seem to realise the associations of the word “mortgage” (cf. 4.2.1.2.4) in the source culture that are likely to be missed in the translation because of cultural distance. Apart from the difficulty experienced by students to understand and find an equivalent for the word “mortgage”, the dictionary meaning provided and opted for by some, i.e. دفعات عقد الرهن الشهري does not carry the connotative meaning associated with the word, i.e. the burden and uphill struggle faced by a large portion of society in the source culture.

Word formation

In the case of word-formation as a TT problem, students might be excused for not realising the difference in the effect of emphatic adjectives formed from the same root as ordinary adjectives, such as قلق قلب for “restless or volatile” over قلق ومتقلب on the rhetoric of the text. But to select أفئال *elephants* instead of فيلة shows a lack of basic knowledge in differentiating between alternative forms of plurals in the mother tongue.

Lexical voids

As far as void words are concerned, results from the multi-subject study generally correlate with findings from the researcher case-study with regard to the inevitable loss in the translation. E.g. “couples” in English include both married, and not married but living together. أزواج, the only choice available in the translation, exclusively refers to married people (a man and a woman) in Arabic. Also “tea”, as the third main meal in English, is void in the target culture in which the third main meal is supper. This can by no means serve as an exact equivalent to the ST word. A difference between the two is that in the case of the former, students were aware of the inevitable loss in the translation, in the case of the latter the majority did not realise the meaning intended in the context. They thought it was a misprint, a case of lack of background knowledge. The implication is that, despite the fact that lexical voids are hard to manage in translation, realizing the problem first is a pre-requisite.

Arabization

Arabization is mainly a problem of attitude towards the concept itself. In translating into Arabic, there are two views: that of the ‘purists’ and that of the ‘innovators’ (McArthur, 1992: 79). The former is strictly against importing any foreign items into Arabic, rejects the mere conversion of the foreign word to the Arabic script (transcription) and calls for total replacement to an Arabic substitute whenever possible. The latter allows borrowing and does not mind using familiar foreign language vocabulary in Arabic or even importing items with their Roman script.

In theory, most students seemed to agree with the former view, as shown by statements in the interviews. In practice, however, their translations reveal

inconsistency, i.e. they sometimes Arabized words, no matter if the word that entered Arabic through daily use and cultural contact is familiar, e.g. “taxi” سيارة أجرة not تاكس, and sometimes transliterated the word, e.g. “tennis” تنس instead of the Arabized equivalent كرة مضرب (cf. 4.2.1.1.2.). (See also Drafting and Editing below). This, no doubt, reveals the tension that exists between theory and practice in this area. Nevertheless, data analysis shows that desperate attempts made by many subjects to Arabize words which do not have ready equivalents often led to false translations (see below). What else the data analysis revealed is when students opt for exaggerated forms of the Arabized words, they almost become paraphrases, e.g. “radio” جهاز إذاعة instead of merely مذياع. In the case of Libyan students this could be an influence of local Arabization programmes, hence a unique example that may not necessarily be generalizable to other Arab students.

Spelling

Despite the fact that some ST spelling did lead to errors in the TT, e.g. “stiff” was understood as “staff”, and some proper nouns were mistaken for others because of their spelling, e.g. “Austerlitz” was understood as “Australia”, not all these type of errors were logged under the spelling category. One reason is recurrence, i.e. confusing “stiff” with “staff”, for example, was not typical. Another reason is that some involved other factors such as lack of background knowledge, as in the case of confusing “Austerlitz” with “Australia”, which was logged under proper nouns. Hence, the numeric data represents errors exclusively related to TT production, i.e. a mother tongue problem. In fact, errors in spelling, including all the four sub-categories of spelling (invention, morphological spelling, dialect influence and hypercorrection and slips) are generally viewed as unacceptable, particularly from

postgraduate-trainee translators – prospective translators would be unlikely to get translation work due to poor TT quality. What is of concern, however, is the low priority students gave to errors in spelling when their attention was drawn to them. Their remarks indicated that they saw spelling as a marginal issue, as data collected during the retrospection revealed. Such a view contradicts with that of the trainer and those of the professional translators who consider spelling rules as important as those of grammar.

Invention (breaking the TT orthographic conventions)

The high percentage of errors in the use of “hamza” * Table 24, Chapter Four indicates that it represents a real problem in mother tongue. This phenomenon can be explained by the fact that the * rules are one of the few irregularities in Arabic’s otherwise quite regular orthographic system. It is a fact that the * rules are complex and may seem arbitrary, especially in a language with an otherwise close sound orthography relationship. Some of the * errors are related to the graphology of the mother tongue where * is written in different forms (أ!ؤئء) and to the grammatical function of the word in question as when the word is preceded by a preposition, e.g. شاطئ instead of شاطئ *shore*, كأس instead of كأس *cup* and رأس instead of رأس *head* are properly due to the influence of local dialect (see below). Moreover, with regard to the * errors, students seem to deal with the * less vigorously, as if it is marginal, that is, not a main letter in the Arabic alphabet. For other less frequent errors under this sub-sub category (such as the use of the final verb gender indicator ت instead of the final noun gender

indicator, ة, e.g. مجزرت instead of مجزرة for “slaughter house”⁸²) there is no explanation rather than lack of competence in basic spelling rules in the mother tongue.

Morphological spelling

In some cases in Arabic the grammatical function of the item affects its spelling, ينفقون becomes ينفقوا when preceded by أن. Errors in this area (see Grammar above), indicate that students do not pay much attention to such detailed morphologically-conditioned orthographic rules of their mother tongue, though the possibility of some being only slips cannot be ruled out, or perhaps they have not learned them.

Dialectal influence and hypercorrection

What is interesting about errors related to local dialectal influence, i.e. replacement of one sound for another, e.g. /د/ instead of /ذ/ نبيذ for نبيذ wine (cf. 4.2.1.1.2.), is that, apart from very few instances, it appears almost exclusively in spelling but not in grammar. One reason for this could be that the confused sounds with regard to spelling are very close in pronunciation, while Arabic standard grammar is relatively, if not considerably, different from dialectal grammar.

The hypercorrection phenomenon e.g. جذارة instead of جذارة competence seems to be directly related to the issue of local dialectal influence as it was also more frequent in texts that manifested errors related to such influence.

The above was an account of problems related to micro language items/units. There now follows an examination of macro text-level problems.

⁸² The right translation for “slaughter house” is سلخانة while مجزرة is massacre.

5.3.1.1.2. *Macro text-level⁸³ problems*

As the analysis of the data shows, individual language errors' effects can lead to errors at the co-text level and, more drastically, at the level of the whole text. This is particularly true when subjects go too far in trying to make sense of their misinterpretations by inserting information that does not exist in the ST (a case of addition) or omitting items/sections that are crucial for the meaning (a case of omission), see below.

Most text level problems are caused by lack of comprehension of ST and lack of skill to produce TT. Below, Text level problems are discussed by sub-category, namely: rhetorical and stylistic devices, cohesion, register and styles, background knowledge and culture.

Rhetorical and stylistic devices

In the context of teaching English to Arab students, Kharma and Hajjaj (1989: 177) state that problems arise from the fact that English and Arabic differ greatly in what they call the 'mechanisms of discourse', including literary devices, rhetoric and thought patterns, see also Jabr (2001). This can be generalised to translating from English into Arabic. In translating between English and Arabic the search for "rhetorical equivalence" is recognizably a difficult task, as the potential problems in this area are vast. In the present study, neither the groups, nor individuals in the two groups participating in translating the texts showed ability for stylistic fine-tuning of their translations, although post-graduate students showed a better feel for ST style. In general, students seemed to be more concerned about reproducing informational detail

⁸³ Some, e.g. Munday (2001), call this discourse level.

than about creating a viable target text. This could be a case of inadequate rhetorical/discourse skill resulting from focusing on the vocabulary and grammar details rather than the whole-text textuality. Alternatively, the problem could have resulted from time pressure. Perhaps if the subjects had more time for revision they would provide better TTs that exhibit skill in transferring the ST rhetoric. This general finding does not exclude, however, the harsh fact of poor literacy skills in the mother tongue (inability to manipulate mother tongue tools properly) which manifests itself in students missing the opportunities to make use of TL potentials such as cognate accusative, to compensate for SL devices or to solve problems.

At the level of word choice, there is a tendency among students to use more neutral words than words with a literary tinge. Below, three main sub-sub categories of rhetorical and stylistic devices will be discussed, namely: metaphor and simile, repetition and parallelism, satire, irony and puns and alliteration.

Metaphor and simile

Metaphors were generally difficult to translate. Many subjects, for example, failed to translate the fairly standard English metaphor “flagship” and opted for the literal meaning, ignoring the non-figurative possibilities available. This is also a dictionary use related error (see below). The implication that can be drawn from this is that students might well be unaware of dictionary limitations and the fact that dictionary can be a hindrance not a helper (Larrien 1984: 22). What is interesting about findings from the multi-subject study, however, is when one unfamiliar simile proved to be more difficult to translate than a metaphor, contrary to the general belief and the experience of the researcher in the case-study when metaphor proved more difficult to translate than simile.

Repetition and parallelism

Findings from the data analysis show three types of errors in students' translations due to mishandling of ST/TT repetition: the first is translating ST repetition literally, the second unnecessarily imposing repetition on the TT, and the third missing the opportunity to use the potentials of the TL when required, as in the case of cognate accusative.

In the first type of errors, subjects seem to lack the knowledge that, despite the fact that repetition at all levels is a pronounced feature of Arabic literary writing (which manifests itself in a variety of forms), one cannot assume that translating repetition as employed by the ST straightforwardly would achieve the same purpose intended, i.e. amusement, in Text Nineteen, for example (cf. 4.1.1.2.1.). The problem lies in the fact that while English employs repetition in a certain context, Arabic, in the same context, might opt for variation (Hatim 1997: 7).

The second error (that of imposing unnecessary repetition on the TT) is a manifestation of how one problem leads to another, i.e. misunderstanding the opening sentence leads to opting for the strategy of addition. That in turn results in unnecessary repetition.

As for the third, missing the cognate accusative from all subjects' translations, except two, while it was used by one professional translator quite generously in different text types, raises the question of students' skill to opt for techniques to compensate for ST rhetorical devices. Also, it indicates students' failure to immediately link to their mother tongue potentials in their quest to solve translation problems.

As for parallelism, data from both the researcher case-study and the multi-subject study show that it is less tricky to handle than repetition at the level of structure. It can be maintained by straightforward transfer, though in the researcher case study parallelism was only partially recovered in the TT mainly because parallelism in the ST was represented by the use of the reference “one”, which has no equivalent in Arabic (3.2.2.1.3). At the level of serving a particular purpose (e.g. for irony and amusement) the matter might be different.

Satire

Problems related to the translation of veiled satire Lendvai (1996: 301) regards as being “tortuous”, i.e. extremely difficult to render. In our case here, the satirical style of Paul Theroux in the extract from *The London Embassy* is overt while in the text from *The Kingdom by the Sea*, Text Sixteen, it could be considered veiled. The difficulty in rendering both texts, as experienced by the students, was further complicated by the use of compounds and consecutive adjectives, a case of overlap between language problems and text-level problems. The fact that neither veiled nor overt satire was rendered adequately in any of the subjects’ translations shows how difficult it is to transfer satire from one language to another

Irony

The fact that none of the subjects mentioned the term irony when asked about certain ironic instances, but used the term sarcasm instead, means they confuse the two concepts or probably only know the latter (see Hatim, 1997 for a similar finding). The two concepts are indeed very close in meaning:

Irony is the use of words to convey a contradiction between the

literal and intended meaning. Sarcasm is very like irony except that it is more stinging. Where the primary intent behind irony is to amuse, with sarcasm it is to wound, (Bryson 1987: 92).

One explanation of this would probably be that 'irony', as pointed out by Hatim (1997), can relay 'sarcasm' when translated into Arabic due, as he explains, to the fact that Arabic is an 'explicative' language while English is more 'implicative'. This issue of implicit/explicit was a main source of problem in almost all students' translations either because they failed to notice ST irony (too implicit) or they converted ST irony into harsher TT sarcasm (too explicit).

However, the fact that "irony often remains intended but not understood, or unintended but imagined" (Newmark 1981: 23) adds another dimension to the difficulty in handling it. Analysis of the data has shown a serious lack of understanding of irony and severe errors in its rendering, particularly when the irony does not seem to be understood. What makes the translation of irony difficult is that its interpretation is not based on signals of intention stated by the sender but more on common values and context, and also that any explicitness in conveying the message violates the conventions of the rituals of irony (Mateo 1995: 174). Moreover, the power of irony lies in its ambiguity, and any expansion of meaning or elaborating on it risks harming the playfulness of the language and its effect, as in the case of translating "authentic" in "they (the jars) were the authentic ones used in the miracle", Text Thirteen, to mean authentic. In the context it means the opposite (cf. 5.1.1.1.2.). Furthermore, without elaborating on "the miracle" in the TT, a literal translation of "authentic" risks the irony not being adequately transferred, i.e. the translation has to convey the subtle meaning intended.

One half-way solution adopted in the researcher case-study for tackling the problem of rendering irony, when an intervention is necessary to get the message across to the average reader, is to place any necessary clarification in the translation outside the two utterances concerned in the correspondence between Churchill and Shaw, (Text 14: 105, 3.2.2.1.4.). It could be placed in an introduction for example, or in the co-text (e.g. “Churchill replied *jestingly*”) رد تشرشل بدعابة. None of the students, however, used such a technique with texts that exhibit irony.

Puns and alliteration

The fact that in the researcher case study no solution was reached in translating the pun in “I’M BACKING BRITAIN – but backing Britain into what?”⁸⁴ confirms what has always been emphasized in the literature, i.e. that puns are barely translatable (cf. 3.2.2.1.4.). The problem with translating puns is in the double meaning of the word (e.g. “backing”) and the difficulty lies in how to divorce meaning, intention, function, effect, and communicative value from verbal formulation when the former seems to be the exclusive effect of the latter.

As for alliteration, in the example tested in the study, alliteration of the sound ‘p’ in “practice makes perfect”, Text Three (advertisement for Rolex), is the core of giving this fixed expression its appeal. Neither the students nor the three professional translators managed to reproduce the alliteration in the TT. However, alliteration جناس (استهلالي) can be compensated for in the translation by rhyming سجع in the final sound of the two main words in a translation, as المران سر الإتقان *practice is the secret of*

⁸⁴ A sticker at the back of a car.

efficiency, provided by the professional translator. This is another example of the need to look for mother tongue potentials to solve rhetorical problems.

Cohesion

Differing conventions of cohesive structures from one language to the next is one of the sources of difficulty encountered in translating texts that has been emphasized by many writers, e.g. Yule (1996: 141) and Hatim and Mason (1989). The problem in translating from English to Arabic arises from the fact that the components which connect a sequence at the surface (De Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981: 3) in English are different to those in Arabic.

In this study it has been found that one of the central problems manifested by errors in subjects' translations is lack of cohesion, which often leads to failure to transfer the ST message, as shown by TT recipients' reactions (cf. 4.2.1.2.2.). This results in the text losing one of its main factors, which is acceptability⁸⁵ (De Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981: 7). The outcome could well be the result of a combination of literal transfer of ST patterns with a lack of command of TT patterns. A lack of understanding of the ST item/s (e.g. where such an item/s is/are left untranslated, as in the case of "psychodrama") also contributes to TT cohesion problems.

Below, Reference, Substitution, Ellipsis, Conjunctions, Theme and Rheme, Paragraphing, plus Graphic and Orthographic marks, as sub-categories of Cohesion, are discussed.⁸⁶

⁸⁵ Acceptability is defined by Sager (1994: 90) as "the reader's or listener's acceptance of a message as being a unit of communication".

⁸⁶ See 3.2.2.2.1 for reasons why cohesion is discussed under Text-level problems and not Grammar or vocabulary (lexis) according to Halliday and Hassan (1976).

Reference

Among the reference devices used in English and reputed for not being easily handled in Arabic is cataphoric reference (Hatim 1997: 95). Difficulty arises, as Hatim emphasises, from the fact that Arabic does not really favour such a structure. Both in classical and modern times, grammarians of Arabic strongly advise against the use of cataphora, while stylisticians and rhetoricians also discourage its use. Only those uses of cataphora deemed to possess a high degree of stylistic informativity are allowed, and these are only a handful (ibid). The problem of cataphoric reference, like the case of thematic fronting (see below) lies more in realizing its oddity when transferred as it is into Arabic, since Arabic prefers anaphoric reference, than in finding a way to express it in the translation. That is, once the problem of the cataphoric reference is realised, its solution is immediately available and not difficult to implement, as in the case investigated in the researcher case-study (cf. 3.2.2.2.2.). For convenience, the example is cited again here: “despite his gratitude for his friendly reception there, Freud did not go away with a very favourable impression of America” becomes رغم امتنان فرويد للحفاوة التي استقبل بها في أمريكا لم يغادرها بانطباع جيد *despite Freud's gratitude for the friendly reception he received in America, he did not leave it with a very favourable impression.*

What seems more problematic than cataphoric reference for a number of subjects is in differentiating between exophoric and endophoric reference (Halliday and Hassan 1976: 33). Apparent confusion between these two manifested itself in students'

translating “if it is hot; if it is cold” to إذا كان الشاي ساخنا أو كان بارداً *if the tea was hot or cold*⁸⁷ while the reference in the ST is more likely to the weather.

As Arabic is a more explicative language than English (a fact many students do not realise), another recognizable feature of translating from English into Arabic is often the need to repeat the presupposed item referred to by using the cohesive element in full instead of translating the cohesive device into its equivalent in Arabic (Al Kenai, 1985: 230). However, the case demonstrated by Text Nineteen, is, in fact, the opposite, i.e. to avoid awkward repetition of “tea”, it can be substituted by the referent (ه), i.e. تحتسيه، تشربه *sip it, drink it*. The fact that all students, unduly, opted for retaining “tea” is influence of the ST regardless of stylistic preference in the TT.

Substitution

One explanation for students handling nominal substitution better than verbal and phrasal substitution (cf. Chapter Four, Section Two: 4.2.1.2.2. Cohesion section on Substitution) is that retaining “ones” as a nominal substitution for “jars” (as used in a number of examples in the study), for example, would not make sense in the translation while retaining the other two (do and so) would not obstruct understanding though they would sound odd.

Ellipsis

Ellipsis aims for compactness and efficiency. As far as Arabic is concerned, although it does use ellipsis, it uses it less extensively and differently than does English:

⁸⁷ “Cold tea” is not drunk in Britain. This shows how a combination of background + grammatical knowledge is needed to disambiguate certain statements, because the referent of “it” could grammatically be either “tea” or “weather”.

There are, of course, very evident differences in the ellipsis mechanisms of English and Arabic; Arabic, for example, has a very limited auxiliary verb system, and no do-support, these being structures at the heart of ellipsis in English (Campbell 2000: 216).

One of the professional translators whose translation was used as a model against which students' translations were tested stated that Text Fifteen reproduced below was the most difficult to translate, apparently because of the use of ellipsis.

Who exactly will be dancing this polka?' asked Stravinsky.

'Elephants', came the reply.

'I see, 'said The composer. 'How old?'

'Young', said Balanchine

'If they're very young', said Stravinsky, 'I'll do it'. Well, they were; and he did - hence the circus polka.

While most students managed to tackle the first elliptical references ('elephants', 'how old?' and 'young'), the majority struggled with the last section that represents the conclusion: "well they were; and he did – hence the circus polka" mainly, it seems, because of the existence of the auxiliary and the do-support referred to by Campbell (ibid.) above. However, Campbell agrees with Halliday that:

It is always possible to 'reconstitute' the ellipsed item so that it becomes fully explicit. Since ellipsis is a lexicogrammatical resource, what is taken over is the exact wording (Halliday 1985: 302).

What students seem to lack is searching for strategies/techniques to cope with ellipsis, i.e. explicating the reference implied by the ellipses in Arabic.

For example, the last section of the above extract can be solved by merely explicating the elliptical items: لقد كانت الفيلة صغيرة فقام سترافينسكي بتأليف الموسيقى، ومن هنا كانت بولكا السيرك *the elephants were young, so Stravinsky composed the music – hence the circus polka*. The implication is that ellipsis should be handled with special care in translating from English to Arabic.

Conjunctions

Data analysis has revealed lack of confidence among the majority of the students, especially the undergraduates, in varying their use of conjunctions, as when they translated “but, however, yet” to لكن *but* and not إلا أن، غير أن. Moreover, no attempt was made to use a conjunction when the ST does not use one, as in the researcher case-study when the researcher added the missing connector بالرغم *although*, which does not show on the surface in the ST: “Battered and bloody, he wins through” (cf. Chapter Three, Section Two).

Theme and rheme

With regard to theme/rheme issues, “English and Arabic both have a tendency to start with the most thematic element and end with the most rhematic element” (Dickins et al 2002: 119). However, in translating from English into Arabic the problem is when rheme information becomes thematic. Moreover, what is revealing from the data collected, as the following translation of the extract from the Tito Biography “living in a small hotel on the left bank in Paris, ...Tito gained many left-wing international contacts”, Text Ten, (cf. 4.2.1.2.2.) shows, is that the difficulty lies in realizing the problem more than in how to solve it. This assertion is supported by the translations of two post-graduate students and that of the researcher in the case-study, as the

اكتسب تيتو خلال إقامته ... solution was merely bringing the delayed theme to the front as ...
Tito gained during his stay ...

From a different perspective, since inappropriate use of independent first person pronouns أنا أعلم *I know*, as a point of departure (cf. Baker, 1992: 128), instead of using inflected verbs أعلم (as customary in Arabic) was not widespread among students, it did not constitute a worrying phenomenon. In fact it only appeared in a number of undergraduate students translations. For example, 'we went' in "we went to Cana of Galilee", Text Thirteen, was translated نحن ذهبنا إلى instead of ذهبنا إلى. However, inappropriate use of independent pronouns as in التدريب يصنع المهارة أنا أتفق معه for the translation of "‘practice makes perfect’ is something I agree with" instead of التدريب التدريب, should not appear in the speech of adult users of the mother tongue, as it is a matter of basic principle.

Paragraphing

Besides being a discourse feature, paragraphing, has a rhetorical function (El-Shiyab 1994). Data analysis indicates two factors with regard to students handling of paragraphing. First, a tendency among students to preserve the ST paragraphing, which is an indication of ST influence. Second, either lack of awareness or carelessness, when TL conventions of paragraph linkage using linkage devices such as و and ف are not observed.

Graphic/orthographic marks

Orthographic markers include acronyms, capitalization and italics as markers of emphasis, brackets and quotation marks, “scare quotes” and punctuation.

The fact that acronyms were never reproduced in students' translations, e.g. BMC was translated to تعاونية لحوم بتسوانا *Botswana Meat Corporation* and USA الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية *United States of America*, indicates that students were aware of the fact that acronyms are a source language feature and not a TL one.

However, with regard to capitalization for emphasis, students were credited over the professional translators for acknowledging the importance of capitalization in "ESSENTIAL" and retaining the emphasis through lexis, e.g. ضرورية جدا جدا *very very necessary*. None of the three professional translators tried to add any extra emphasis.

As for brackets, the fact that seven subjects out of the ten who translated "I walked towards Pevensey (Pevensey Bay being the spot where William landed his army in 1066) and decided that ..." considered the subject for "decided" as being William and not "I", the author, shows how easily students fail to notice graphic signals. The reason could be they pay all their attention to individual vocabulary neglecting punctuation. Such errors in reference, which happen when brackets pass unnoticed, and clauses embedded between brackets are considered part of the text, have serious implications for whole-text meaning.

With regard to quotation marks for direct speech, what is important is that students failed to decode the object-fronting where the object is signalled or defined by its punctuation (i.e. two factors combine to cause the problem), e.g. "European chefs know all about prime Botswana meat", boasts a full page advertisement on the cover of Air Botswana's in-flight magazine", it is also a genre issue: journalist texts often begin with: "quote", says subject.

With punctuation in general, the contrast between the researcher in the case-study and the students in the multi-subject study is that in the case of the former, punctuation was not a ST comprehension problem, while in the latter it was a serious one that resulted in TT text-level errors caused by inability to decode ST punctuation. With regard to the TT production, due to the fact that punctuation in Arabic is a fluid area that lacks standardization, in the case of the researcher in the case-study, it occasionally led to hesitation in the process of TT editing. Students' data, on the other hand, shows obvious influences of ST punctuation in translation, as some do not seem to realise that cohesion in Arabic is maintained more through text syntax and semantics than through punctuation, and that when English uses punctuation marks, Arabic often uses lexical morphemes (Sa'deddin 1987: 183, Hatim 1997: 137⁸⁸, and Kharma and Hajjaj 1989: 107). The fact that even those who pointed out that the two languages differ in this area did not apply it in practice shows how far students are unable or unwilling to risk distancing themselves from the ST, even when importing ST punctuation would lead to fragmentation of the TT. As the data shows, transfer of ST punctuation to TT leads to problems at the level of TT cohesion, short sentences or phrases with no lexical or syntactic linkage, etc. (cf. 4.2.1.2.2.).

Register and style

Cohesion and register together effectively define a text.

A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of situation, and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent with respect to

⁸⁸ See Hatim's criticism of manuals trying to impose a Europeanized system of punctuation on Arabic, p: 136.

itself, and therefore cohesive. Neither of these two conditions is sufficient without the other, nor does the one by necessity entail the other. Just as one can construct passages which seem to hang together in the situational-semantic sense, but fail as texts because they lack cohesion, so also one can construct passages which are beautifully cohesive but which fail as texts because they lack consistency of register – there is no continuity of meaning in relation to the situation (Halliday and Hassan 1976: 23).

One main problem in translating from English to Arabic is how to match the register of speech to the situational context when standard Arabic is a means of showing popular speech in writing, not local dialect. The variety of student's errors related to register (Table 22) shows the extent of the problem. The problem is further complicated when in a similar situation in Arabic standard Arabic is used, while in English the local dialect is used. Similarly, in the case of style shift, when English uses informal style in the case of a text written to be spoken, while Arabic uses formal style. The most drastic errors in terms of inconsistency between register and style, however, are those of using colloquial vocabulary such as *خفة دم* for “charm” in a more or less formally written text.

Furthermore, the TT may suffer loss of meaning when the significance of ST reference to places or persons representing social status is not transferred or not realised by the TT audience (e.g. “working-class”, “students”, “left bank in Paris” as opposed to the rich other side of the river, “suburbs” as opposed to the heart of Paris, and “Latin Quarter” as opposed to more elegant Parisian places).

Background knowledge

The difference between the researcher in the case-study and students in the multi-subject study is that world knowledge problems consisted mainly in the first case of knowing how many of them that are implicit in the ST have to be made explicit in the TT, as stressed by Schäffner (1991: 2) "TL should compensate knowledge differences". Schäffner (1991: 10) emphasizes that how much presupposed world knowledge implicit in the ST has to be made explicit in the TT must be based on what she calls the relevance principle, which can be decided on the basis of functional, situational and text typological criteria. This shows how crucial is background knowledge in solving translation problems. In the case of the students, it was lack of background knowledge in the SL that led to errors in the TT. Despite the fact that a number of subjects, mainly post-graduate, realised the fact that sometimes some presupposed ST background knowledge has to be spelled out in the TT, e.g. وليام الضفة اليسرى *T. S. Eliot (the poet)*, إس. إليوت الشاعر *William (the conqueror)* (الفتاح) *the West bank of the river (Seine)*, ...etc., the problem relating to assumed ST shared knowledge in the case of students remains largely and primarily in spotting it in the text in the first place.

On the other hand, while lack of background knowledge would not necessarily result in error in some cases, as the context would not reveal such lack of knowledge, e.g. "whether or not Tito was a Chinese leader", in other cases it did lead to drastic errors, e.g. Rolex was understood as being the other competitor playing with Chris Evert, her secretary or body-guard, and not a watch brand name. An error of the latter kind goes beyond a mere problem of background knowledge to the inability to grasp meaning from context and using the concept of text-type (an advertisement about Rolex) to

infer text theme. Also, to believe that the Seine river runs North-South in Paris, as inferred from the translation الضفة الغربية *the West bank* instead of الضفة اليسرى *the left bank* reveals a lack of background knowledge that extends beyond the geography of the location to the social status of each bank of the river.

These examples and others, as data analysis and information from the retrospection revealed, show proper names caused a real problem, a fact also confirmed by other scholars (e.g. Newmark, 1993: 15).

Culture

Due to the fact that culture is a vast concept that includes many aspects, not all cultural aspects were tested but only those that occurred in the selected texts. Moreover, as texts investigated in the researcher case-study are more wide-ranging than those used in the multi-subject study, more categories were tested in the case-study than those tested in the multi-subject study. Below, some key sub-areas under culture will be highlighted, namely SL culture-bound item/s, interference TL cultural values, humour, religion and politics.

SL culture-bound item/s

Culture as a translation problem is usually referred to as a ST/SL problem, which is a type of background knowledge. For example, inability to decode “tea for tea” in “... you have tea for breakfast; then you have tea at eleven o’clock in the morning; then after lunch; then you have tea for tea; then after supper; ...”, Text Nineteen, was a source culture background knowledge problem that proved hard to tackle. However, merely acknowledging that there is difference between source culture and target culture is not sufficient to solve a problem. Data collected both from the translation

product and information during the interviews revealed SL culture-bound items, e.g. couples, mortgage, etc. that proved difficult to translate even when students realised they were problematic.

Interference of TL cultural values

Culture based translation problems, can also result from target culture interference, as the analysis of the data and information from retrospection shows. For example, understanding “he was seldom a guest” in Text Seven, as “he should always have felt at home” (cf. 4.2.1.2.4.). Such an inference seems to result from the connection in the target language culture between “guest” and “hospitality”.

Humour

Failure to appreciate ST humour may also be prevalent within the source culture; in translation, as revealed during the researcher-case-study⁸⁹, target audience appreciation of a translated “humorous” text in the target language would probably be more difficult to attain. Moreover, as students on the whole did not differentiate between what is intended to amuse (irony) and what is intended to hurt (sarcasm) in the source culture, their translation inevitably manifested such misunderstanding.

None of the texts used in the multi-subject study included what we might call apparent jokes (overt) such as those referred to by Lendvai (1993b: 206). However, examples in this study illustrate the humour of incongruity, which is universal, but also depend partly on culture-specific knowledge – Stravinsky as a serious composer, miracles at Cana as happening 2000 years ago, Lord Russell being a famous

⁸⁹ As an example, a text by Clive James, TV presenter, triggered different attitudes; what some thought was an over- heavy joke, made others laugh.

philosopher. According to Mateo (1995: 174), “universal jokes will be the easiest to translate, if they do exist”. Nevertheless, the problem with these examples is that while they triggered laughter among native speakers when approached with the texts during the researcher case study, they did not make students react, nor make them laugh. For example, they seemed to have missed the points intended in “elephants dance polka” in the case of Stravinsky, “the wine jars in Cana of Galilee were the ones used in the miracle” and the fact that Lord Russell couldn’t answer the question of the taxi driver “what’s it all about?”, nor did they manage to transfer the humour. It is a case of ST comprehension blocking TT production.

Religion

The tendency to translate what can be described as English “secularism” to religious language, e.g. “Oh, do say!” قولي بالله عليك *say, for God’s sake* (cf. 3.2.2.5.2.) in the case-study was also observed among students in the multi-subject study, e.g. translating ‘tea for tea’ to شاي مع وجبة العصر *tea with the Asr meal* (‘Asr’ is the time for the third prayer between noon and sunset, cf. 4.2.1.1.1. section on Lexical Voids). The difference, however, is that in the case of the former, the researcher was aware of the shift taking place as well as of the translation loss resulting from translating “Sunday afternoon” in traditional Protestant families to merely ظهيرة الأحد. In the case of not getting the message implied in the mention of the biblical reference to the “miracle” in the case of the students, the students’ process of translating did not extend to the step of searching for a strategy to find a best fit translation, as managed successfully by the researcher, e.g. opting for explicitness for general Arab readers without

subverting the vagueness intended in the ST, i.e. معجزة المسيح⁹⁰ *the miracle of Jesus* (cf. 3.2.2.1.4).

Politics

None of the texts tested in the multi-subject study include any of what we might call politically sensitive political texts (Schäffner, 1997) or political “taboos”, jokes or epithets (Valló 1996: 143). However, as indicated by Khudeir (1991: 70), political terms can be potentially problematic, as shown in translating a fairly well known term such as “left-wing”. In translating from English to Arabic, Khudeir lists seven problems in translating political language: political terms with or without “cultural equivalence”, eponyms, administrative terms, history-bound terms, terms with different interpretations, euphemisms and acronyms. As far as the present study is concerned, reference to historical figures in the past did not seem to have caused a problem, e.g. William (the Conqueror), though political figures in the near past seem to have caused difficulty e.g. “is Tito a Chinese leader?”. Indirect display of political attitudes were also occasionally problematic, e.g. missing the point Noel Coward is trying to make in his memoirs during the peak of the cold war when referring to the arrival of the train in Moscow “only” one hour late (cf. 4.2.1.2.1. Irony). While “left-wing”, as a political term, falls under the first category in Khudeir’s list, the other examples mentioned above cannot be linked to any of the categories. They seem to reflect a generation problem in global world knowledge in the area of politics, on one hand, and a generation gap imposed by the generation of the text compiler influencing which texts were chosen (cf. 4.2.1.2.3. Background Knowledge).

⁹⁰ For cultural reasons, one would probably need to add عليه السلام *peace be upon him*, as a gesture of respect.

5.3.2. Problems of the transfer process

As this study aimed to investigate problems related to language features that result in errors in students' translation product, investigating students' transfer processes was not the prime aim. However, as product is the result of process, the two are interrelated and inevitably problems related to the transfer process will show as in errors in the product. This is what was revealed in the course of analysing the data, and during the interviews when students volunteered information concerning their strategies and techniques in the process of transfer. Problems of the transfer process, it was found, weigh almost as strongly in terms of making errors as those of ST comprehension and TT production discussed above.

The transfer process refers here to the operation in which the translator undertakes certain actions to convert a SL item, segment, or text to a TL equivalent (cf. 2.1.3). While 'Addition' and 'Omission' as two techniques belonging to the transfer process were discussed in Chapter Four as separate sub-categories, other strategies and techniques such as 'back translation', 'dictionary use', 'analogy' and 'coining' for example, were only referred to in isolated examples.

Errors resulting from opting for the wrong strategy were such as those caused by refraining from consulting the dictionary and opting for analogy instead, e.g. "passengers" for المارة *passers by*. Errors also resulted from opting for the wrong technique, as in the case of choosing to preserve a ST passive form while in the TT an active form would be preferable, e.g. "the music had been commissioned by a circus", إن الموسيقى قد تم التفاوض على تأليفها من قبل السيرك.

Below, strategies and techniques used by students in their transfer process that resulted in errors as observed in the data analysis and revealed in the retrospection will be discussed in more detail.

5.3.2.1. Strategies

Strategies discussed below do not cover all those classified by Krings (1986), Lörcher (1986) or Sager (1993), (cf. 2.1.3.), but are those that seem to have led to errors in at least some of the translations.

Although results from the multi-subject study do not show a correlation between consciously perceived problems and the use of certain strategies, the fact that post-graduate students' underlining of ST item/s (double and single) did not always result in errors in their product is an indication of their making more effort (and/or using more successful strategies) to solve problems. On the other hand, even when a problem was realised and identified, students, especially undergraduates, often tended to produce a wrong translation apparently without making any effort to try solve the problem, e.g. by turning to available resources such as dictionaries.

Data analysis revealed, again particularly among undergraduate students, that automatic transfer of the ST to the TT tended to be at the level of individual items or chunks of items but not with longer stretches of language. Furthermore, the strategy of ST analysis appeared often to be absent, as evident from the type of errors that could have been avoided if the ST had been analysed at certain levels, grammatically, for example. The relative scarcity of the process of text analysis is another indicator that students tended to proceed 'word-for-word', paying little attention to context.

However, other mental and physical processes were common among students in this study.

5.3.2.1.1. Problem realization and mental search for solutions

Mental search for a solution comes after problem realization. Problem realization was mainly inferred from students' notes and comments or interviews, e.g. "the word starts with a capital letter, it is a name, then it is not translatable" was a note written next to "Latin Quarter". A note like this indicates that the name was not looked up in the dictionary, even though the standard dictionaries (e.g. Al-Mawrid) contain frequent proper nouns, particularly those made up of common elements which will not translate word-for-word. On the other hand, a mental search for an equivalent when the students did not realise it was a name, or that it might be in the dictionary, often led to giving an equivalent to each item separately, e.g. الربع اللاتيني the Latin quarter. Another example of strategy related problems is when the mental search does not come up with an answer after defining the problem. The result is abandonment of the search, e.g. "'practice makes perfect' I know it is a fixed expression but I can't think of a proper equivalent", as one student said during the interview.

5.3.2.1.2. Physical search for solutions

As observed, the most frequent and often the sole physical search for solutions was by looking up words in the dictionary, though occasionally, as reported by some students, using human resources. In translating from English into Arabic Heliel (1997: 284-288) blames the problem of translating vocabulary on shortcomings of dictionaries (English /Arabic dictionaries). Indicating items looked up in the dictionary by means of writing D on the top of the item/s in question was more

frequent among undergraduates than postgraduates. This is an indication that undergraduates encountered more lexical problems than postgraduates. The case might also be that undergraduates were more willing to tell about item/s looked up in the dictionary than post-graduates.

Various errors in students' translations are related to dictionary use, e.g. relying on the common general use of the word without checking other possible meanings in the given context, and picking up the wrong meaning from alternatives in the dictionary. For example, translating "flagship" in "the Lobatse slaughterhouse is the flagship of the government-owned Botswana Meat Corporation (BMC) ..." to *بارجة* *battleship*, (see Metaphor and simile above), is almost certainly a dictionary use related error where the student opted for the first meaning in the dictionary and not the second: "the most important of a group of products, projects, services, etc." (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 1995: 443)⁹¹. A large number of errors also seem to be a result of relying solely on a bilingual dictionary and not using monolingual dictionaries for double checking (only two postgraduate students used monolingual dictionaries). At the comprehension level, research has shown that good users obtained better results with monolingual dictionaries than with the bilingual one (Laufer and Melamed 1994: 575)⁹².

While common errors related to dictionary use are to be found in choosing between alternatives, other errors are the result of not consulting the dictionary at all. Students underlining very common words that have an immediate meaning in the dictionary as

⁹¹ Alkawrid English Arabic Dictionary only gives the first meaning but not the latter.

⁹² Quoted in Heliel (1997: 285).

difficult (see Table 19, Chapter Four, Section Two) and errors related to such words in their translations, reveal that they had not looked the words up in the dictionary.

Adopting the policy of “dictionary stays shut”, as indicated by the remark written in the commentary “I tried not to use the dictionary as much as I could”, appears to reflect the advice usually given to translation students or language learners, especially in non-traditional classrooms, to keep the dictionary as a last resort on the assumption that relying on the dictionary slows students down. It is interesting how pedagogical advice like this leads to adverse results which result in errors in the translation.

However, the dictionary cannot be the sole factor in producing errors, as will be illustrated below.

5.3.2.1.3. Drafting and editing

The idea behind investigating the drafts that subjects produced and submitted together with their final versions was to detect how far subjects were able to correct themselves. Interestingly enough, while drafting and editing could be expected to improve the translations, occasionally students either miscopied translations from the drafts or made “corrections” in their final versions that resulted in erroneous translations, whereas their original draft translations were more appropriate. Such a tendency was more obvious in adding unnecessary words or phrases, a case of expansion (Duff, 2000: 169-181, see also back translation below). One interpretation of this is that students were not always able to assess their translation and then improve it.

Moreover, apart from the cases when re-drafting translations led to improving the final product, the worst outcome was when subjects were discouraged from finishing

their translations. When a text was abandoned altogether, the reason, as some revealed in the interviews, was that the translation did not make sense in the first draft. This is supported by a number of half-translated texts on the task sheet that were fully translated in the first draft, i.e. sometimes students failed to edit the translation to a final version at all. One subject said “I did not edit the translation because when I showed the draft to a relative, he could not understand it”⁹³. This might not be the fault of the editing process per se but with ST/TT comprehension/production at first draft stage. In process terms, a better strategy in the last example would have been to “debug” the draft until it did make sense to the second reader, “the relative” in this case.

Alterations showing words being Arabized in the draft and not Arabized in the final version or vice versa showed hesitation and uncertainty as to whether to adopt the strategy of Arabizing or not. Findings in this respect were supported by information obtained during the retrospection. Examples of whether or not to Arabize words included alteration of the word ‘lord’, which in one case was transliterated لورد in the draft and Arabized سيد in the final version, and transliterating the word ‘taxi’ in the draft and Arabizing it to سيارة أجرة in the final version (cf. 4.2.2.1.1.), also, see above.

5.3.2.1.4. Back translation

In a number of instances subjects apparently used the back translation technique to check on their initial translations, but changes made accordingly in “I’ve got an eye for celebrities”, were erroneous. What is interesting about this finding is that it shows the limits of back translation – while a good idea for checking individual word-

⁹³ An indication of turning to human resources as a strategy, see above.

meanings with potentially unreliable dictionaries, it won't unpack idioms, for example.

5.3.2.2. Techniques

While translating literally was the main source of errors in students' translations, additions and omissions were the most common non-literal techniques used by students. When addition manifests in translating a ST word to a TT phrase and not adding information it shows merely a tendency to say things in more words, a case of expansion that leads to the translation sounding verbose but does not amount to actual error. In the case of omission, in most cases the result is often errors, as both numeric and qualitative data (cf. Chapter Four, Section Two: Findings and Results) show. Analysis of the data revealed that some techniques known in the field of translation have not been used by the students when they could have been tried to solve problems. For example, while transposition was used as a technique to change grammar classes (e.g. verb → noun or adverb → verb) due to the difference between the two languages, modulation (e.g. negative → positive or passive → active and vice versa) was rare, particularly among undergraduates. Refraining from using this technique does not seem a matter of translator style and preference, but more an indication of being restrained by the structure of the ST. Other techniques such as reordering, compensation and adaptation were also rare or often absent. Below, addition and omission, as the two most prominent non-literal techniques used by students that resulted in errors, will be discussed.

5.3.2.2.1. *Addition*

Different types of addition, the ones discussed below, are a frequent phenomenon in students' translations. This often leads to adding surplus information or padding with unnecessary vocabulary resulting in deviation from the ST. Trying to make sense of what they translate seems to be the reason behind most instances of addition in translations. Students appear to implement this strategy to make discourse sense of the TT that often reflects a wrong interpretation of the ST's actual propositional content.

Addition of information

Addition of unnecessary information is such as preceding the translation of "a smoke-hood ...enables passengers to survive longer", Text Six, by the phrase الحل الوحيد في مثل هذه الحالات هو meaning *the only solution in these cases is....*, is a sign of wrong interpretation and/or lack of judgment.

Addition of stress

Students often do not seem to realise the impact of adding stress in the TT that is not in the ST. In fact there is no particular explanation of students' tendency to add stress in the TT other than the fact that in similar situations when numerous things are mentioned, the last is usually emphasized by certain expressions in Arabic such as لاسيما *especially/ in particular/ mainly* and حتى *even*, which they often used in the translation regardless of whether their equivalents are present in the ST.

Alternative translations

Giving alternative translations is not used by the students as a transparency strategy in Olk's (2002) terms, i.e. elaboration on ST elements or cultural reference for the target culture readers. It is either a sign of hesitation or a reflection of pedagogic translation, as the intention of the student could be to give the impression to the teacher that he/she knows other alternatives (e.g. قاعة الاجتماعات/المؤتمرات for “auditorium”, i.e. *meetings/conferences room*).

Expansion

Expansion differs from adding information in that the former is an explanatory procedure, i.e. saying things in more words (over-translation, Duff, 2000: 169-181), (e.g....إذا ما تبين لك أن الجرار كبيرة جدا, i.e. *if it became apparent to you that the jars were too big ...* for “if they (the jars) were too big...” whereas Adding Information is telling what is not in the ST message. Examples like these can be interpreted as students' failure to know about/use the translator's maxim of conciseness (Krings 1996), i.e. the guiding principles of not letting the TT expand too much.

In summary, many of the additions and in fact other types of errors resulted from adopting what we might call a “beating about the bush” approach, in which students complicate what can be translated straightforwardly in Arabic. This finding is similar to Steinbach's (1981: 258) conclusion regarding wrong choice of grammatical structures: “it is interesting to note that one quarter of the grammatical mistakes would have been avoided if a direct transfer pattern (a one-to-one translation) had been chosen”. The problem is that students do not seem to have developed the sensitivity towards when proximity to the ST is appropriate and when it is not. One

explanation of the high tendency to opt for addition among students is that they were not sure of their translation and aimed for maximum clarity, and did not seem to be aware of the fact that this might be communicatively problematic and disrupt the flow of the translation so that the text becomes more long winded.

5.3.2.2.2. *Omission*

By Comparison with Addition (2.39 average total errors per student), errors in Omission are relatively fewer (1.97 average total errors). Subjects used the former trying to make sense of their translation through over-elaboration of what they interpret from the ST, while opting for the latter problem by ignoring it. Omission is often used by the subjects as an avoidance technique to escape the risk of a wrong translation, with abandonment of the translation shown by an overt gap (.....), that is different from a translation technique proper where omission would be a type of “message reduction”. Thus, omission is being used when comprehension of a ST element is blocked, or when a knowledge gap exists: in either case, the result is missing information in the TT.

Below the two types of Omission as observed during the data analysis are discussed.

Omission of items

There are two types of omission at the level of single items: omitting unknown items vs. semantically discordant items. An example of the former is the missing of “psychodrama” in many translations, indicated by a space (overt omission), because it was not found in the dictionary. An example of the latter is in discarding the translation of “Paris” with no indication of the missing item (covert omission) because it does not go with the context, where “Austerlitz” has been understood as

“Australia”. It is similar to the case of omitting “grumpy” when other adjectives (“rose-growing”, “dog-loving”, “window-washing”, “church-going”, “law-abiding”, “library-using”, “tea-drinking”) in the text were understood to be positive (cf. 4.2.1.1.2). In cases of both overt and covert omissions, when omission involves items that were central to the meaning, they often resulted in breaking communication, as in the examples above.

Omission of section/s

The problem of omission is more severe when it goes beyond single items to section/s of text. The tendency to abandon large sections of a text is usually due to one difficult item leading to difficulty with what comes after. When a single item is ignored without any overt signal that shows there is a missing part, it can pass unnoticed; with the omission of a large section of the text, it is bound to be noticed as the loss of information will inevitably have a wider implication.

5.3.2.2.3. *Analogy and coining*

One phenomenon worth paying attention to is when subjects turned to analogy to translate a word blended from two parts such as “psychodrama” whose meaning is not immediately found in the dictionary, or was not looked up as in the case of “miraculously” or “mortgage”. Such a strategy, when unsuccessful (e.g. الإستطباب النفسي for “psychodrama”), sometimes led to non-convincing coinages. The fact that dictionaries will not enable the user to generate new compounds (which are taken here to cover blends such as “psychodrama”) by analogy has been emphasised by Jacobsen (1992: 134). In the case of “miraculously” or “mortgage”, analogy led to the invention of new words based on similar features

with others in the mother tongue, (e.g. أعجوبيا and تقاسيط respectively). Errors of this type are an indication of lack of knowledge of what word-forms exist and what do not, a problem of mother tongue literacy.

5.3.2.3. Other process factors

Other process factors which affected students' errors are difficult to link to any of the above-mentioned strategies or techniques. Among them are the habits which subjects acquired during work or skills they practiced during early training for work and transferred as a result of over-generalization to their translation.

This was obvious in the case of one of the two novice translators who participated in the study and who worked for UNESCO (National Libyan Commission). Inappropriately, she used a word often found in UN publications (i.e. يُشكّل *to compose/pose*). Also, she opted for a technique which is more noticeable in news broadcasting when sentences are too long and contain embedded clauses, i.e. repeating the verb أكتسب *gained* in the same sentence (أُكتسب تيتو أثناء إقامته ... أكتسب...). Such a technique was apparently acquired when training at work, as she herself emphasized in the interview.

Certain errors in the same subject's translations seemed to result from over-generalization of training in translation classes, such as those related to solving problems related to the use of passive forms using يتم *to be completed*. This type of passive form is used more with expository text types and news reporting than in literary texts as occasionally used by the students, e.g. "He was usually invited to our embassy parties" كان من المعتاد أن يدعى للحفلات التي كانت تتم دعوته إلى حفلات سفارتنا *instead of* تقيمها سفارتنا.

The above was a discussion of the taxonomy of the translation problems as presented in Table 23 above. I now discuss the ranking of these problems.

5.4. Ranking of problems

A lot of effort was devoted in this study to investigating difficulty of translation problems (research question Three, cf. 1.5) both at the level of main categories and at the level of sub-categories, but no claim can be made that all problems were tested. For example, although this study does include some scientific/technical texts and extracts from well composed literary texts, it has not tested the difference between what Snell-Hornby (1988: 41) calls “universal texts of modern science” and “literary texts embedded in a culture of distant past” where she suggests the latter are far more difficult to translate than the former. However, older literary texts are not what real-life translators usually have to translate.

Moreover, ranking problems according to a difficulty scale is not without obstacles, not least because there is no existing model to measure difficulty. Besides, there does not seem to be an agreement among researchers about classifying categories of problems according to a scale of difficulty. For example, problems of collocations are recognizably difficult in translating between many language pairs although Bowker (2000: 204) classifies them as non-binary, i.e. not difficult. In general, research in the area of difficulty in translation generally focuses on the link between difficulty and availability of translation equivalents (e.g. Tirkkonen, 2002, Awwad 1990, Saraireh 1994).

As far as the present study is concerned, a detailed scaling of translation problems similar to Saraireh’s and Awwad’s with regard to translating technical terms and

idioms, respectively, would not be possible here at higher levels such as vocabulary, grammar, rhetorical and stylistic devices, for example, as within each category difficulty varies. For example, it would be difficult to say whether vocabulary is more difficult than grammar or grammar is less difficult than rhetorical and stylistic devices, as within each category there are aspects that can be either more difficult or less difficult. The model of classifying categories according to a scale of difficulty from maximum difficulty to least difficulty (high, moderate and low) was, in fact, tried and eventually abandoned after being tested with different raters who differed in their assessment as they each gave different scores to the same categories (cf. Chapter Four, Section One). This implies that intuition in ranking difficulty is unavoidable.

Moreover, investigation in this study also showed that ranking problems according to “text-type” (Sager 1993: 131) was difficult due to the hybrid nature of texts (cf. 2.2.4.2.1.). Thus, despite the fact that some findings do hint that certain problems are more related to text-type (e.g. technical terminology), the scale of ranking adopted here is according to language features that can be present in any text-type (see Table 23).

The guidelines to measure problem difficulty here, whether at the language level or text-level, then, are imposed by the data itself. They include: process difficulty, error frequency and error severity although they are three different ways of describing the same phenomenon that can be looked at independently. Each one confirms the other/s and any model of problematic rankings would have to take the three into account.

5.4.1. Process difficulty

In the researcher case-study, difficulty was measured mainly on the basis of the number of attempts at translation, how often the task was temporarily abandoned for later trials and the use of different resources. In the main study, difficulty was measured in part by what students expressed in the interviews. It was also measured from students' underlining of problems and the comments either in writing or in the interviews. Some students seemed to link what is 'easy' and what is 'difficult', to the length of the text: "although the text was short, it was a little bit tricky" and "although, the text was long, it was easy to translate". This, of course, represents a short-sighted view, as in reality often there is no correlation between the two. Moreover, data show that there are fewer underlinings comparative to errors made. Two explanations can be speculated to explain this phenomenon: under-reporting and underestimation of difficulty. In the case of vocabulary, under-reporting could be linked to the belief among students that a dictionary would eventually provide the solution. However, many of the errors relating to vocabulary, the largest among all other categories, are related to dictionary use (as indicated by the number of words looked up in the dictionary). In grammar, underlinings show that many grammatical structures singled out as difficult include vocabulary items either signalled individually as being difficult or resulting in vocabulary-related errors. As for underestimation of difficulty, findings from the present study based on comparison of students perception and product manifestation (errors) correlate with Pontiero's (1992: 300) suggestion that what might initially seem to be easy turns out to be difficult, as in the case of polysemy, divergence, proper nouns, collocations, and certain grammatical aspects such as transitivity and word order.

However, according to the data gathered by different means, difficulty seems to be associated with certain categories more than others. Findings from the case study and those obtained from students' data, for example, agree with Sager's (1993) ranking that word play comes at the top of the scale of difficulty. Also, structural/semantic complexity (i.e. complex grammatical structures that include embedded phrases and consecutive adjectives) and non-transparency of meaning appear to present the most perceived difficulties. Among other problems causing difficulty for students is unfamiliar vocabulary with different meanings or meanings unavailable in the dictionary, compounds, fixed expressions, mixed register, lack of background knowledge and culturally bound references.

5.4.2. Error frequency

Although errors often exceeded difficulty reporting in raw numeric terms (e.g. a high proportion of vocabulary-related errors do not match students underlining), they do correspond to subjects' perceptions of what they found difficult with regard to categories they mentioned or underlined (e.g. compounds, fixed expressions, technical terms and passive forms) and what they found least difficult (e.g. tense, negation and conditionals). The high frequency of errors resulting from failure to choose the right word from the right semantic field classified under 'Incorrect Vocabulary Choice' compared to 'Inappropriate Vocabulary Choice' shows that problems of polysemy, divergence, derivation, technical terms, proper nouns, compounds, collocations, Phrasal Verbs, and Fixed Expressions classified under the former are more difficult than problems of Connotative Meaning, synonyms, near synonyms, word formation, lexical voids and Arabization classified under the latter. In contrast, errors in grammar scored a higher frequency in word order and passive forms, negation and conditionals

classified under 'Inappropriate/Grammar' than in morphology and prepositions, tense and articles classified under Incorrect/Grammar. What this shows is that problems of grammar associated with the ST are more difficult than those related to the TT. Moreover, despite the low reporting factor, complex grammatical stretches, including very long noun phrases in the ST, scored a high frequency of errors that usually resulted in text-level errors, mainly cohesion and rhetorical and stylistic devices.

5.4.3. Error severity

Findings show that problems tend to result in more drastic errors when they pass unnoticed and students do not realise that they should have tackled them. Criteria generated by the present study to measure error severity, whether at the individual language items level or text level are as follows:

- Deviation from the ST.
- Altered meaning.
- Loss at the level of the message.
- Violating the TL grammatical system and, maybe, also encroaching on cultural norms.
- The spread of the effect of the error (co-text or text level).
- Repetition of the same errors, including basic ones⁹⁴, made by many subjects.

Despite the high proportion of vocabulary related errors, taking into consideration the above criteria, qualitative analysis of the data shows that text-level errors are more

⁹⁴ As for assessing severity of errors, the basicness and intelligibility criteria for the gravity of errors in language learning investigated by Hughes and Lascaratou (1982) can be borrowed here.

severe than individual language errors. In figures, only a few students managed to achieve transfer of text-level features at the level of cohesion, rhetoric, register etc. in their translations. As for transferring the message of the ST, while findings do show cases of communication breakdown at the level of co-text as a result of language errors, the more severe disruption was at the level of the text as text-level errors cause complete breakdown of communication or communicate wrongly.

Hence, the hypothesis put forward earlier, that macro/text-level errors are far more serious than language errors⁹⁵, appears a valid one for the following reasons:

- Firstly, language errors usually affect co-text elements but text-level errors affect the text as a whole. This is particularly true when students try to make sense of what they misunderstood by turning to certain strategies to make discourse sense.
- Secondly, when it comes to amendment, while language errors can be signalled and amended on the spot, text-level errors usually entail rewriting of the text as a whole or extended portions of it.
- Thirdly, although a language error in vocabulary, grammar or spelling could have an impact on the whole text, when it is only a manifestation of poor manipulation of the tools of the TL (mother tongue in our case) it does not usually block communication or miscommunicate, e.g. أنفقوا instead of أنفقوا *spent*, hence should be seen as less severe. Text-level errors in most cases either break communication or communicate wrongly. This is in accord with

⁹⁵ The same is said by Shaheen (1997: 10), though with different labels, "It is in the area of cohesion and coherence of texts, rather than in their grammar or vocabulary, that Arab students' translations most suffer".

Brunette's (2000: 180) suggestions that language errors are less severe than text level errors, because the latter jeopardize the comprehension of the TT (see also Pym (1993) and Chapter Two, Section Two: Literature Review). Since errors at the text-level can sometimes pass unnoticed, especially if the TT sounds convincing, and any manifestation of errors can only be detected by a comparison of the TT to the ST, the reader who only has access to the TT may well not be exposed to the information that was originally intended by the author but to what was invented by the translator. These errors Masoud (1988: 10) also describes as "worse" because, in her terms, they do not show when the renderings are comprehensible but in fact convey a meaning that is quite different from the one originally intended.

However, as revealed in this study, individual language errors would only cause slight misunderstanding when there are not too many of them but too many language errors can collectively become text-level errors. When they manifest poor SL competence such as inability to decode long stretches of grammatical structures or interpret orthographic marks meaningfully, they risk becoming serious as they are bound to distort or obstruct the meaning. When they manifest TL incompetence, they severely undermine the quality of the TT. The underlying assumption, therefore, is that users find surface errors disturbing even if they do not disrupt meaning.

Moreover, while many of the language errors could have been avoided by simply turning to basic translation strategies, many text-level problems needed more than mere transfer, but rather, highly sophisticated strategies, background knowledge, wit and skill and often also theoretical backing.

With regard to the sub-categories within either individual language problems or text-level problems, errors at the level of word-play, figurative speech, cohesion, background knowledge and culture seem to result in the most drastic errors. Errors resulting from these problems often distort meaning and break communication (Chapter Four, Section Two).

According to the above, applying a model of problematicity that encompasses process difficulty, error frequency and error severity, this study reaches the following conclusion: text-level problems are more difficult to solve than language problems and errors at the text level would be more serious than errors at the level of micro language items/units. The reason is that the former represent problems of language in use while the latter are more related to the mechanism of the language system working at the co-text level. Using the relative difficulty (process) and relative severity/frequency of errors (product) as a source of data for ranking, evidence from the main study shows that subjects did wrestle most vigorously with text level problems when they could detect them. When they passed unnoticed, the impact produced severe errors. However, within each category at either level, problems vary in difficulty according to the linguistic environment in which they appear, bearing in mind that one problem can lead to another or to the difficulty of another, availability of resources and degree of expertise. For example, in one instance a simile proved more difficult to translate than a metaphor. Nevertheless, this is an exception not a recurrent phenomenon that can change the fact that in general metaphors are more difficult to render than similes because in metaphors the comparison between the factors involved is more implicit. In contrast, for satire, both overt and covert satire proved to be difficult to render. Similarly with jokes, both veiled and non-veiled jokes proved to be difficult not only to transfer but also to comprehend.

5.5. The impact of proficiency on translation performance

With reference to research question Four, what difference proficiency makes in translation performance, the question refers largely to the quality of the translation product of the two groups of subjects: *postgraduate students* and *undergraduates*. Occasionally, reflections from the researcher case-study, insights from professional translators used as informants in the case study, and translations from the three model translations of the texts used in the multi-subject study have been used in previous chapters as references representing the more professional side in the equation of experienced vs. inexperienced, but these will not be discussed here. Not surprisingly, level of proficiency did make a difference in terms of the adequacy of the translation, realizing problems, and looking for strategies to solve and master them, whether SL or TL.

Although some basic errors are not only confined to undergraduate students but also appear, to a lesser degree, in post-graduate students' translations, this study reveals post-graduate students performed much better than their undergraduate counterparts. This is mainly because post-graduates are more advanced in SL comprehension, and more experienced in handling language issues, as many of the postgraduates participating in this study, if not all, had some experience either in translation, language teaching or other related fields. They also have richer repertoires in both SL and TL and more and better strategies. This is shown by the quantitative and qualitative analysis, Chapter Four, Section Two. It was at the undergraduate rather than postgraduate level where basic errors of different types such as the ones discussed above manifested themselves. In strategic terms, postgraduate students showed more efficient search techniques than undergraduates, e.g. looking up items

they did not know in monolingual dictionaries. Moreover, it was post-graduates who turned to back translation as a checking technique, though this occasionally led to errors. Post-graduates were also more conscious of TL audience perception than undergraduates, as the interview utterance “this is what Arab speakers expect” indicates. With regard to editing, only one of the undergraduate students provided drafts with his final version, while a number of post-graduates provided drafts of all texts. Furthermore, the only student who provided two versions of the same text was a postgraduate student. He called the first “direct translation” and the second “free translation: meaning and style”; an indication of the ability to consciously adopt different approaches to translation.

With regard to self-monitoring, from the data collected during the introspection, commentaries, and notes, there is no evidence that either group, or individuals within the groups, had particularly strong self-monitoring skills or high orientation of their processes to solve problems. However, self-monitoring was more evident among postgraduates; they were more aware of their failure to comprehend, making errors, and the need to try other solutions, as was apparent from utterances like “I could do better with more context”. Such an utterance suggests that these students were aiming for something better. In contrast, there was tendency among undergraduates to be content with their performance. “That was all I could manage” was a frequent utterance among undergraduates, even though there were no time-constraints that might be overriding for both groups. Also, abandoning translation was common among undergraduates but not among post-graduates. This result conforms to the idea that the postgraduate students were more confident and more prepared to endeavour – and not be put off by incidental difficulties or lack of perseverance.

Moreover, interviews with post-graduates were more an interaction between subjects and the researcher as students took the liberty to ask questions, never mind if some were only a matter of curiosity (e.g. “Was Tito a Chinese leader?”, cf. 5.1.1.1.2., Politics above). Relative to translation, this reveals a more exploratory attitude among post-graduates towards the task.

Although data collected from the two novice translators was eventually analyzed as part of the post-graduates’ data, their performance is, unsurprisingly, the best of all (fewer errors count, more conformity to TL system and more coherent TTs). The only one TT free from any errors was translated by a novice translator. Also, in terms of realizing problems, underlining and interviews showed that post-graduates and the two novice translators *were more able to identify problems, hence made more effort* to solve them and the result was fewer errors. Moreover, in general, when undergraduates were able to identify problems, usually they did not move on to the stage of diagnosis, i.e. using techniques of analysis to establish the nature of the problem. One explanation of such an admittedly unsurprising finding, i.e. of the fact that post-graduates produced better translations is that through experience one learns how to weigh things more efficiently and, in a wider sense, learns a more sophisticated set of strategies.

5.6. Summary

This chapter was devoted to discussing translation problems and interpreting findings and results obtained in the multi-subject study (Chapter Four) to address the research questions put forward early on (Chapter One). Findings were also compared to others in the literature (Chapter Two) while reflections of the outcome of the researcher case-study (Chapter Three) helped to enrich the argument here.

The main goal of this study was to examine translation problems encountered by students in translating from English into Arabic. The outcome of the investigation was a comprehensive taxonomy (Table 23 above) of a bundle of problems manifested in the translation product of a large number of students (undergraduates and postgraduates) in the form of errors of different types and process difficulties.

This study also managed to reach some conclusions with regard to students' behaviour in translation performance. Root problems in many students' poor performance in translating from English to Arabic are the lack of strategic skill and strategic awareness, lack of linguistic expertise in handling issues of differences between the two languages, English and Arabic, and lack of TT standard Arabic expertise at the levels of both lexicogrammar and textuality.

The study also addressed other issues such as the degree of difficulty of the problems. Despite the fact that there is no absolute agreement in the literature about what is difficult and what is easy, in terms of difficulty ranking, availability of equivalence seems to be one criterion seen as crucial. What this study adds with regard to students is that availability of equivalence is of no use if the student is not aware of its existence or lacks the skill to search for it.

The discussion above also addressed the issue of the role of proficiency in translation performance and the difference proficiency makes in the quality of translation.

In the following chapter (Chapter Six, Conclusion) results reached in the whole study will be evaluated. Suggestions for translation course designers will be offered and implications will be discussed for further research.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION

6.0. Preamble

The prime aim of this study, as stated in the introduction (1.5.), was to investigate problem areas in translating from English into Arabic and try to rank those problems in terms of frequency, difficulty of problems and severity errors. This was achieved, within the capacity of this project by means of the two main studies (the researcher case-study, Chapter Three, and the multi-subject study, Chapter Four). The researcher study, through a case-study in which 270 texts were translated, mapped the areas of difficulties and generated hypotheses as to what might be problematic in translating from English into Arabic for trainees (Table 4, Chapter Three: Section One, p: 54). In the second and bigger study (Chapter Four), the assumptions of what might be problematic were tested in a multi-subject study.

6.1. Overview

While summarizing the achievements of the study below, what is important here is how the findings in this study improved our understanding vis-à-vis the existing body of knowledge. Of course, it would not be possible for a study like the present one to produce a complete catalogue of all translation problems in translation. However, in the areas of enquiry assigned for it (investigating translation problems, classifying them and ranking them in terms of their difficulty), this study has reached conclusions which are worth taking into consideration in courses designed for translation training, see below. What this study offers, as its contribution to the field, is the taxonomy which was generated from empirical data and from real users. The key contribution of the present study is then in the detailed analysis of the problems rather than just listing

them, the general points coming out of the discussion of the problems, the analysis of the errors, e.g. the prominence of vocabulary problems, and the empirical evidence even when some findings reflect the intuition of earlier scholars. This study is also unique in the way it weighs different problems, e.g. in the ranking aspect. Of particular usefulness is the fact that in the course of investigating the impact of proficiency on students' performance while carrying out translation tasks, this study has managed to pinpoint the main sources of errors in students' translations. In other words, while this study relies on its outcome, its real value lies in its detail.

Moreover, while the model does accommodate some of the translation problems that have been stated in previous models, it adds some more, particularly those uniquely related to translating into Arabic (problems related to the TL). Also, in relation to translating into Arabic, the material used here to test the translation problems provided unique examples that have not previously been tested. Other problems can be generalized in translating into other languages (cf. Chapter Four, Section Two, and Chapter Five). Discussion was backed with theory whenever possible and problems were compared to precedents in the literature, when available.

Some of the detailed findings generated during the course of investigation accord with previous research adding, firm empirical confirmation of what is already known; others are, however, innovative. In a number of instances, findings in this study revealed that some well established facts in the literature need revising as students' products have shown phenomena that differ from what scholars have been taking for granted, as the summary of the findings of the study shows below.

6.1.1. Translation problems

To establish a taxonomy of translation problems was the main achievement of this study. Comparing the present taxonomy with the existing ones shows, although it shares many of their principles, it is more comprehensive in the way it combines different levels of problems in one taxonomy. The four categories division (supra, main, sub, and sub-sub categories) allowed the inclusion of previously scattered problems in one hierarchal model descending from the more general to the more specific. For example, various problems such as process transfer problems, which were dealt with separately from text product problems, and ST problems, treated with no direct link with TT problems, are integrated in the model. Among its other merits, the present taxonomy allows for dealing with overlaps between language problems and text level problems, whether ST or TT. It also addresses what could be collectively or separately causes of problems, namely, ST comprehension, TT competence or transfer process. Combining all these factors in one framework provides more solid grounds for finding solutions in translation courses, as will be discussed later.

Despite the fact that some findings seem to confirm others' findings such as the significant prominence of vocabulary issues as compared to other problems (cf. Rosenhouse 1989: 130-131, Hawas 1990: 60 and Holmes 1988: 9), "students' fixation on questionable word-level parameters at the expense of text-level processes" (Olk 2002: 121) and serious problems in the areas of "connectivity", "punctuation" and "paragraph organization" (Shaheen 1997), this study made some discoveries in other areas. For example, in the area of Arabization, findings revealed contradiction between what students believe and what they practice. In theory, most students

seemed to agree with the 'purists' view more than with the 'innovators' (McArthur 1992: 79), i.e. Arabizing all items that do have equivalents in Arabic and avoiding importing foreign words. In practice, however, their translations revealed inconsistency in adopting this approach. Furthermore, while some knew that Arabic often uses lexical morphemes when English uses punctuation marks (Sa'deddin 1987: 183, Hatim 1997: 137 and Kharma and Hajjaj 1989: 107), only a few ventured to apply this in practice. In the area of technical terminology, this study acknowledges the previously established fact that problems of technical terms are chronic in translating into Arabic (Bahumaid 1994: 135). What it adds to the current problem of inconsistency of standardization addressed by Saraireh (1994: 79-82) and discrepancies of forms and usages addressed by Hasan (1966: 219) is the fact that some transfer processes such as analogy and coining can lead to terminology errors such as false etymology in students' translations.

While some problems reported in this study are also problems previously reported in translating into many other languages, e.g. void words (Dagut 1981), idiomatic expressions (Duff 1989), proper nouns (Newmark 1993), wordplay (Sager 1993), veiled satire (Lendvai 1996), local jokes (Lendvai 1993b), irony (Mateo 1995), cohesive structures (Yule 1996), and sensitive political elements (Schäffner 1997), the important and innovative finding this study reports is the fact that problems related to the mother tongue (target-language) are a key source of errors. Findings in the present study revealed a worrying lack of mother tongue control and skills in crucial areas such as transitivity in Arabic, distinguishing meanings expressed by different words, meaning expressed by the same word, synonyms and near synonyms, words that collocate together in the mother tongue and inappropriate use of certain expressions, differentiating between alternative forms of plurals or different forms of ordinary

adjectives and emphatic adjectives. Furthermore, investigation revealed breaching of rules of the system of the language (conventions of grammar proper) in the mother tongue and norms of cohesion, poor command of rules governing generic and specific issues, disregard of basic rules of spelling, inability to manipulate mother tongue tools properly, e.g. missing the opportunities to make use of mother tongue potentials to compensate for SL devices, poor proofreading skills and insensitivity to theme/rheme issues, word order and main clauses and sub-ordinate clause distribution.

Among the problems that have hardly been addressed in relation to translating into Arabic and are stressed here is the hypercorrection problem with regard to spelling, as a local dialect influence. This could be unique to Libyan students, and ungeneralizable to other Arab students speaking different dialects.

6.1.2. Causes of errors

With regard to causes of errors, the finding of the relative severity of errors in different areas has a significant implication for watching students' performance and what we can read from their error behaviour. For example, the high figure of vocabulary errors is an indication that the problem is more than mere lack of transfer skills and/or TT skills; it is in fact a manifestation of limited vocabulary knowledge in the first place. Bearing in mind that one comprehension problem might potentially be a direct or indirect cause of another problem, what is a priority is pursuing a programme for enhancing the stock of vocabulary in the SL.

Another major cause of a number of errors was when students still treated the two languages similarly despite the fact that English and Arabic differ greatly in the 'mechanisms of discourse' including literary devices, rhetoric and thought patterns

(Kharma and Hajjaj 1989). Students' inclination to transfer a SL property to the TL on the basis of one to one relationship was a phenomenon largely found among low level students. It reveals lack of knowledge both with regard to the two languages concerned and translation skill per se, e.g. Arabic uses ellipsis less extensively and differently than in English (Campbell 2000: 216), and it is always possible to 'reconstitute' the ellipsed item so that it becomes fully explicit in the translation (Halliday 1985: 302). Similarly with passive, when the agent is known, Arabic prefers an active structure (Rosenhouse 1988: 101) and Arabic has found a way to express the agent in passive constructions (Cantarino 1975: 53 and Khalil 1993: 172). This contrasts with repetition, for example, as Arabic uses the device more extensively than English (Johnstone 1991 and Dickins et al 2002: 59-63 and 100-111), but also differently, i.e. while English employs repetition in a certain context, Arabic, in the same context, might opt for variation (Hatim 1997: 7). In other areas students seem do not realise that there are fine lines distinguishing between irony, sarcasm, satire, etc. (Mateo 1995: 174). What are needed to clarify ambiguities where there are grey areas are insights from instructors, frequent exercises and knowledge backing. However, a number of errors such as those in word order and conditionals, for example, are no doubt caused simply by ST influence and are a symptom of translating over-literally.

Furthermore, dictionary shortcomings in certain areas do add to the problem; here seems almost a consensus that English-Arabic dictionaries suffer from shortcomings (Holes 1994: 161-179 and Heliel 1997: 286). Heliel further stresses that "no collocational Arabic dictionary is available" and shortcomings are apparent in phrasal verbs (ibid. 287), a complaint shared by Newmark (1993: 30) with regard to dictionaries in general.

6.1.3. Ranking

With regard to the ranking of problems, unlike previous attempts which rank translation problems according to difficulty intuitively, this study managed to set criteria based on both perceived difficulty and translation errors, though the intuitive aspect is also retained in problem severity. The system provided here could be generalized for pedagogical purposes. However, findings in this respect are in line with previously established thought in many areas, though, occasionally, indications from this study revealed contradictions to long standing dictums like “metaphor is more difficult to translate than simile”. Findings from this study show that simile can be as difficult, if not more difficult, when the simile device is not overt or the comparison is not conceivable in the TL. Moreover, the problematicity of metaphor/simile cannot be separated from other possible problem-aspects in the co-text (e.g. long lists of compound adjectives). Nevertheless, according to findings gathered by different means, this study agrees with others' judgements that “idiomatic expressions are notoriously difficult to translate” (Duff 1989: 237), wordplay is at the top of the scale of difficulty (Sager 1993), English and Arabic idioms constitute a major area of difficulty for translators and interpreters (Awwad 1990: 66 and Hawas 1990: 64-65) and compounds are treacherous formations (Jakobsen 1992: 129). What it adds to the fact that difficulty in translation is linked to the availability of translation equivalents (Tirkkonen-Condit 2002: 115, Awwad 1990 and Saraireh 1994: 79) is that awareness of such availability is equally necessary.

What this study adds to the last point is that, in the case of students, availability of equivalence is of no use if they are not aware of its existence or lack the skill to search

for it. Moreover, while the most obvious problem related to vocabulary is when the meaning is referential, the subtle and more drastic problem is when the meaning is connotative at the level of the text, figurative or ambiguous, as in the case of many of text level problems. Another point with regard to an error's gravity is that the conflicting aspects of basicness of error and seriousness of the impact remain an issue, i.e. one target language error in grammar or spelling may not be serious when it does not break communication in the TT. The present study draws attention to the fact that when there are too many such errors, they could seriously undermine the coherence and/or quality of TT.

With regard to measuring problem difficulty and error severity, this study found that the three scale parameter used by Saraireh (1994: 79) in classifying terminological terms and the four scale parameter used by Awwad (1990) in translating idioms can only work at the lower-level categories. Hence, it is not feasible to classify translation problems related to rhetorical and stylistic devices, for example, as being more difficult than problems related to cohesion. The reason is that the former contains problems that vary in difficulty (e.g. metaphor appears to be more difficult than simile and parallelism appears to be more difficult than repetition) and the latter includes categories that also vary in this respect (e.g. problems related to conjunctions appear to be easier to tackle than those related to reference and problems related to theme and rheme appear to be more difficult to realise than the ones related to substitution).

6.1.4. Strategies

As findings from the study show, turning to the right strategy or resources to solve translation problems would naturally entail realizing and identifying the problem in the first place. Findings from the study show that a high percentage of errors would

have been avoided had proper, basic and not necessarily professional, strategies been used such as transposition (e.g. verb to noun and adverb to verb) modulation (e.g. passive to active, Munday 2001), ST analysis and a minimum degree of mental search to choose between alternatives. Students' underlining of familiar general vocabulary as difficult does reveal a disinclination to perform the basic physical search technique such as looking up words in dictionaries notwithstanding the shortcomings of dictionaries as a main resource to solve problems.

Furthermore, some techniques often regarded being effective in tackling translation problems led to adverse results when used improperly by the students, e.g. 'back translation'. The question is why a technique like 'back translation', usually a checking strategy (Sainz 1992: 70-71)⁹⁶, did not effectively check the translation in the cases reported.

With regard to students' performance at the level of undergraduates, and to a lesser extent postgraduates, findings disagree with Bastin's (2000: 237) suggestion that the problem is neither linguistic nor meaning-based but it is typically a re-expression issue. On the evidence of the present study, it is a combination of all three factors to varying degrees between the two groups (postgraduates and undergraduates) and between individuals in each group. However, findings do correlate with his in that a major cause of errors is the tendency to translate over-literally (ibid. 235), as errors related to over-literal translation that result in deviation of the meaning from the ST represent a far higher frequency than any other sub-category.

⁹⁶ Sainz (1992) suggests 'back translation' among six techniques that develop students' skills of translation.

In accord with other scholars' findings, the present study reveals that one source of a great number of errors in students' translations was the tendency in students' performance to process at small units of language rather than textual material; students' performance was limited to what Wilss (1994: 43) terms local (lower-order) processing and not global (higher-order) processing, i.e. working at smaller language units in the process of comprehension and translation production (Gerloff 1987 and Lörscher 1993).

Among the strategies that could have saved many of the students' errors are revision and pre-drafting, as normal techniques in almost all translation processes. Findings show, that while subjects were often able to identify their errors and made corrections (Hieke 1980), interestingly, on occasions, subjects made erroneous corrections in their final versions that were originally right in their drafts.

6.1.5. Translating proficiency

With regard to the impact of translating proficiency, comparing students' translations with those of professional translations showed the real difference proficiency makes in manipulating the tools of language or using strategies (cf. Toury 1986 and Bastin 2000). However, at least one instance has shown non-professional translators (students) realised a ST issue (emphasis by means of capitalization) and tried to tackle it in the translation while professional translators dismissed.

With proficiency, we are confronted with two different aspects: translation expertise and target-language manipulation. With regard to the former, students, particularly undergraduates, might not be blamed for inefficient skill to translate adequately as

they lack the experience on which they can draw strategically to solve problems, i.e. turn to the right strategy, but with language tools manipulation students at this level of education, in the view of many, are expected to handle TL language aspects with adequate efficiency. The case of lack of competence in the TL (mother tongue) reported in this study is not unique; case-studies carried out in different institutions in different countries reached similar findings, see, for example, Hörmann (1992). University lecturers world-wide know that not all undergraduates, especially in a world of wider participation in higher education, write without faults in their mother tongue. The present study has shown how this regrettable reality impacts on translation, resulting in inadequate performance in the task in hand. The implication is that L1 writing proficiency really does need tackling in translator training, especially at undergraduate level. A profession like translation which presupposes linguistic competence and a thorough command of the languages involved should not compromise on deficiency in ST text comprehension and TT text production such as that reported in this study, if students are to enter translation as a profession.

The following sections provide a description of implications for teaching translation and further research.

6.2. Implications for teaching translation

The issues as stated in the aims of this study are of concern to both professional translators as well as academics. However, since the idea of researching in the area of translation in this study was originally inspired through years of experience in teaching translation to undergraduates and recently to postgraduates, its outcome is primarily intended to benefit teachers and translation course designers. Accordingly, the discoveries this study made with regard to students' behaviour in translation

performance should enlighten people in the field of translation training to guide their trainees for a better training outcome. Below, I give some suggestions arising from this study's findings in this area.

6.2.1. Translation activities: 'preventative' and 'remedial' approaches

In the area of teaching translation at the university level, many report flaws in translation curricula in their institutions, but only a few offer suggestions for remedies.

The fact that translation in undergraduate language courses in general, and in Libya in particular, is usually introduced as a peripheral subject, overshadowed by other subjects that are considered more important, means that translation courses tend not to get the attention they deserve at this level. This attitude ignores the fact that it is at the undergraduate level where students normally discover an aptitude for translation and this should be taken in consideration when designing courses for undergraduates. However, many undergraduate translation modules look only at remedies after the event, i.e. a common current practice is giving students texts to translate and then simply correcting and/or discussing what errors happen to come up. Relatively, only a few are based on coherent syllabus design for translator training (prevention), unlike the case of dedicated postgraduate courses. 'Preventative' and 'remedial' approaches to translation training both ideally aim at translation free from errors. While the former aims to preventing errors from happening, the latter aims at learning from errors by mending them. When it comes to suggestions put forward by each approach, another distinction may be added: 'institutional' (translating for the market) vs. 'pedagogical' (teaching translation) respectively. Moreover, some suggestions such as upgrading the student's knowledge of the target language through parallel courses and

providing trainees with all the necessary tools for understanding the ST and all the guidelines for the end-product, as put forward by Bastin (2000: 236) can work both ways: preventative and remedial.

As an initial preventative measure, this study suggests that foreign language curricula at universities should give more emphasis to the subject of translation at the undergraduate level for students aiming to become translators (translation majors) or English-language majors, who make the bulk of people entering the profession. The situation at the moment is that courses of translation are undervalued comparative to other subjects. For example, at Al Fateh University/Tripoli, the site of this case-study, the subject of translation was introduced far more lately than other subjects. More detailed “preventative” suggestions are given below as bullet points.

- Among the prevention approaches are the proposals put forward by Larson (1987: 46) for accepting students to enter the major of translation. Larson suggests some sort of measure (language proficiency examination) that will aid in screening applicants, giving a reliable and universally understood ability or proficiency score in language. Experience in some translation courses (e.g. Duisburg) shows how effective it would be to begin translation work only when the students have reached a high level of proficiency in the foreign language (cf. Klein-Braley 1996: 25). The requirement of sufficient reading and writing ability in the SL and/or the TL would enable students to pursue technical training without language itself retarding their progress. In that case, the preparatory language program as a transitional phase between school and university and not part

of the degree course proper suggested by Snell-Hornby (1992: 12-14) would serve the purpose well and perhaps better than assigning slots in the training program for elevating language standards both in the SL and the TL (where either can be the mother tongue). An example would be one year of language work only in the first year of a university course, and bringing in translation in the years after. This would be more practical than language work prior to a translation degree, which would probably be more feasible in a translation MA, where language work is assumed to have been covered at BA level. This of course, applies only to translation majors. For language majors, who traditionally make up the bulk of translation at undergraduate level, the subject of translation should gain more attention at all levels: material selection, teaching methodology and integration with other subjects.

- Turning now to teaching techniques, one activity that can probably work well is exposing students to already translated material for investigation so by comparing the ST with the TT they draw conclusions for themselves regarding different strategies manipulated by the translator.
- This approach can aim at developing the skill of investigating translation critically. The technique of contrastive projects for training students that involve the target language and source languages proposed by Khalil (1993: 178) works in this preventative direction and could be effective, see Critchley, Hartley and Salkie (1996: 108-111) for examples of parallel texts and analysis using the contrastive approach. “These projects”, Khalil

says, “would open the students’ eyes to linguistic interference problems and thus help guard them against such problems in translation”.

- Khalil also calls for training students in translation strategies such as transposition (e.g. changing grammar class) to overcome translation problems that arise as a result of the non-equivalency between syntactic structures in the source and target languages. Such translation procedures, he says, should form an integral part of translation instruction. In addition, trainees should be exposed to critical studies in the mother tongue that show different points of views, e.g. the “purists” vs. the “innovators” (McArthur 1992: 79).
- Another preventative measure is adopting the strategy of ‘text analysis’ (recommended by Nord (1992-1993) and used in the researcher case-study here) before students embark on translating the material in hand.
- Another important issue in the context of error prevention is the need for attention to textuality and whole text issues in translator training.
- Finally, from the two novice translators case, I came to the conclusion that exposure to just one type of translation material, while benefiting the translator to become competent in the specific area of work, can influence him or her negatively whenever assigned a different type of material. A risk of transferring translation techniques and using the jargon language of work material for other types of material can be high, and may even lead to serious errors in translation. Since our aim in training students at university is to help them choose their careers, they should be alerted to

this fact. This goes in line with Snell-Hornby's (1992: 15) suggestion of the need for multifaceted expertise. Thus, the need for multiple types of translation material and also whole texts of different types (e.g. Duff's mini-extracts focusing on micro-issues supplemented with whole texts), with explicit appropriate translation techniques in class.

- Experience in translation training (e.g. at the Academy of Graduate Studies, Tripoli, Libya) has shown how beneficial (insightful and scope-widening) or even crucial (providing special direct contact opportunities) are the 'stay abroad' programs similar to the ones suggested by Snell-Hornby (1992: 18), summer courses, research or professional practice as with university programs, research scholarships, temporary posts as teaching assistants or practical training, etc. However, with regard to the options of whether the student should go abroad before the intermediate examination or towards the end of the degree course, the Academy of Graduate Studies, Tripoli, Libya, after feedback from students and reports from the supervisors of the courses, reached the conclusion that the latter option (an initial visit before the degree and an extended stay before the final examination) is more rewarding when the dual program is not attainable.

As for the remedial approaches, the variety of techniques for mending errors are vast. Below, however, some suggestions based on the findings of the study will be presented.

- Findings related to sources of errors in the present study tell us that what is needed when training translators is a program based on criteria that form the basis for a comprehensive system that involves all aspects of translation

including strategies for translation. While this could also work as preventative, depending on whether it comes before or after translation tasks, in both cases it is likely to be highly effective. Training in strategies of translation would naturally include training in dictionary use, drafting and proof reading, checking on the accuracy of translation through means such as 'back translation'. Strategies' literature implies there are no bad strategies *per se*. However the fact that students committed errors due to using these strategies mentioned above implies what is needed is proper training in using them effectively.

At the time of technology revolution today, one might argue that in the present time and in the time to come technology might help in overcoming problems of spelling and grammar so we should not bother much about student's performance on paper with no machine aid. This cannot always be true because in most cases a machine gives options while one has to be fully aware of the rules and the norms of the language to be able to make the right decisions in selecting between alternatives. What a machine can help at is reminding one of superficial slips committed but almost certainly it would not be of much help in genuine errors. However, word-processor spell checkers can pick on non-existent spellings very well, but not on the use of wrong existing words; and grammar-checkers, though they may be a useful additional proof-reader, are notoriously unreliable. Nevertheless, since professional translation is nowadays exclusively done on computers, there should be a role for computer translation work in even undergraduate courses, not only word-processors, but also integrated "translator's workbench programs" like TRADOS.

- No doubt pointing out errors related to the mother tongue as TL in students translations alerts them to their inadequacies in their mother tongue. This should not be understood as advocating the remedial approach as what is needed is more than that: training in mother-tongue writing competence. Moreover, competence in the mother tongue should be looked at alongside other aspects such as ST comprehension and translation strategy together with translation tasks.
- Since it is often hard to separate language problems and problems at the text level (multiple language problems can cause text-level problems), a multiple role is needed: SL/TL support, but also the combination of language and text- problems (e.g. issues of textual coherence) being tackled in the translation class. For remedies or prevention both types of errors (text-level errors and language errors), as symptoms of problems, should be treated with equal seriousness; however, each type of error entails different strategies. Text-level errors should be treated in relation to the whole context and to the wider discourse that the text belongs to while language errors would be treated in relation to the immediate elements of their co-text more within the mechanism of the language system. In the treatment of such problems, teacher/trainer input and feedback should aim at the development of students' own awareness and problem-spotting abilities.

The suggestion put forward here, then, is that during translation training any course should cater for all these factors no matter whether at a high level of the language or a basic level, and students' attention should be drawn to ways of solving problems or getting round them.

6.2.2. Syllabus design

Most existing translation courses design their syllabus with the advanced translator trainee in mind; presumably, course designers design courses for their students. At present, while post-graduate translation programs do gain some attention in terms of assigning special syllabuses, undergraduate courses in general seem to run on haphazard bases particularly in the selection of teaching material, with little emphasis on co-ordination between one year and the next. Moreover, a survey of institutions teaching translation at the undergraduate level pointed to the fact that in many cases “coordination of the translation courses is such that it does not enable texts to be chosen according to any coherent policy, such as grading texts according to difficulty, or grouping them according to subject matter” (Sewell 1996: 137). Thus the model suggested by Hatim and Mason (1997: 178) for selecting, grading and presentation of teaching material for the training of translators, which adopts a text linguistic approach to the classification of texts, is oriented towards advanced students while what we need is teaching material catering for low level students too. In this study, while postgraduates and novice translators in general terms did better in their translation than the undergraduates, nevertheless, they still made basic errors at the level of interpreting ST material as well as basic grammatical and spelling mistakes in the mother tongue. The fact that all subjects made errors at all levels at some point in their translation means we need a comprehensive system of training with input from the error taxonomy discussed in this study, for example, to cater for all aspects of translation in translation courses.

At the undergraduate level, overall course/ programme aims are often more lucid and cogent than specific modules (e.g. 2nd year translating class). For example, in the two

sites where the present study was conducted, at the Academy of Graduate Studies there are explicit aims and objectives which are documented and routinely checked while one major problem in designing translation syllabuses in Al Fateh University is the vagueness surrounding the aims and objectives of many modules. Because maybe only a few see university undergraduate level as the place to develop professional translation skills, not many would claim it is for translation training per se; see the survey of "translation in the curriculum at undergraduate levels in 21 institutes" carried out by Sewell (1996). However, a frequent implicit aim is promoting linguistic proficiency (e.g. by ST analysis which inevitably leads to discussing rules and conventions that govern the SL) and providing a minimum of training in translation skills (e.g. such as strategies and techniques) as the two are seen as inter-related. Nevertheless, to emphasize one more, the other often depends on whether the syllabus at the undergraduate level is designed for a department of languages or a department of translation.

Whether the former or the latter, another main conflict surrounding syllabus design in teaching translation is a result of the tensions between theory and practice. Ideally, many call for combining theory with practical work in teaching translation; and with terminology, for example, Sager (1992: 113) emphasizes "an understanding of terminology requires a minimum of theory". But, only a few (e.g. Klein-Braley, 1996: 26) outspokenly call for discarding the theory. Findings from this study show how lack of theoretical knowledge backing combined with factors such as dictionary shortcomings created a vacuum that led to errors resulting from opting for strategies that should have been effective, e.g. neologism, coining and paraphrasing. If we recognize the importance of theory in offering us "a chance to rise above grass-root level" (Ingo 1992: 49), the question then is how we apply it. As realistic examples are

more convincing, Sager (1992: 114-116) suggests introducing theory by examples and Pym (1996: 100-101) calls for an inductive rather than deductive approach to teaching translation; i.e. starting from the translation process rather than the theory. In his words “it’s no good starting with rules and applying them. And it’s no good starting with a theory and then looking for examples to justify that theory” (ibid.). From my experience, teachers get more attentive ears when starting a class, a first encounter with a translation lesson, with a sentence to translate than with a question: “what is the definition of translation?”. The purpose of teaching theory to translation students is in fact to help practice. This implies a sequence of practical examples, theory and practical applications.

Inability to apply theoretical knowledge in solving real translation problems is what prompted Critchley, Hartley and Salkie (1996: 103) to invent what they call “a skills-led approach to translation teaching”.⁹⁷ In this direction, translation workshops where students work on translation projects in groups and assign students readings for presentations in which they can relate concepts to practical instances seem to work well in combining theory with practice.

Finally, findings from this study indicate any syllabus design in teaching translation should cater for ST comprehension (tasks of text analysis, paraphrasing, summaries, etc.), process exploration (e.g. workshops for insights) and TT “sift” (discussion of students’ works that brings out and pinpoints pros and cons for feedback) and assign slots for that.

⁹⁷ This approach is based on five skills: ability to target a document, specifying the text-type, subject expertise, technical terminology and the ability to design effective documents.

6.2.3. Teaching material

One easy way of selecting potential materials Klein-Braley (1996: 25) suggests, is to use anything which actually has been translated. If we assume that any training/teaching programme stands on a number of pillars, one important pillar in teaching translation is the material selected. Present textbooks are often criticized:

- As adopting either too “micro” an approach, or too “macro” while what is needed, as stated by (Critchley, Hartley and Salkie 1996: 107) is an organizing principle somewhere in between. Such a criticism could also apply to Duff (1989), the source material in the present study. The extracts in the book made an ideal research tool, but students also need experience with longer texts.
- What is lacking in most text books in translating from English into Arabic is the activity side. With this respect, Duff (1989) offers useful ideas.
- Most books are author based, i.e. they are written from the point of view of author intuitions instead of the material selected being based on research that shows students’ needs at each stage of their learning.

The old tradition of merely assigning students tasks of translations based on tutor intuition (e.g. an artificially high preponderance of literary texts) and correcting them by the teacher can no longer be adequate. What students actually need at all stages of learning is translation teaching material that:

- a) explores suspected problematic areas such as those listed in the model (Chapter Five), whether language problems or text-level problems.

b) combines all three factors of problems related to the SL, the TL, and strategies of transfer.

c) caters for undergraduate students, postgraduates and in-house training programmes, ranging in degree of difficulty and variety of topics, each as appropriate.

Moreover what this study has really shown is the importance of having a syllabus based on a range of text-types and a range of problem-types.

With regard to translating from English to Arabic, this study has surveyed a large selection of texts, which proved to be challenging but useful at both levels (undergraduate and postgraduate). Duff (1989), though intended to translate from English into any language and not particularly Arabic, provides very good source material based on the activities approach. Someone familiar with the texts finds many examples in the book that can be generalized to find solutions to other problems in different contexts.

6.2.4. Training methodology

While there is a vast scholarly literature about different aspects of translation, guidelines for teaching material selection and general outlines of approaches to teaching translation, little is offered with regard to practical procedures teachers can follow in the process of translation training, i.e. method of teaching is left to the teacher, and “the result is inevitably highly subjective” (Mauriello 1992: 64).

In teaching translation, while teacher experience and his/her natural inclinations to tackle classroom situations are important, a systematic and structured approach is

indispensable. Tips based on theory should be the cornerstones that provide students with points of reference when they do things spontaneously in practice. Sewell (1996: 138) suggests offering what he calls “fair versions”, i.e. more than one version, of the target texts, to lessen the gap between two extremes among students. The two extremes are, adopting the “play safe” approach and remaining as close as feasible to the ST, i.e. the tendency among students to translate literally, on one hand, and on the other, opting for what I call “beating about the bush” strategy in which students complicate what translates straightforwardly. One way to train students to balance between these two extremes is to provide them with explicit classroom discussion of issues of how to navigate between them.

However, what lower-level students need is acquiring the technical skill to tackle specific translation problems. In this regard, raising questions during the task similar to those presented to the students in this study during the interviews that focus on certain aspects in the translation would be stimulating, enlightening and inspiring for students to translate more skillfully.

In the translation class, the teacher solution, model or alternative translation should be to inspire further thinking and reflection to evaluate options and only given after students exhaust all means to find a solution. Teacher intervention should work as a reminder of what students seem to have forgotten and stimulate discussion. An example drawn from past experience related to the present study in which Text Sixteen was used illustrates this: as a teacher I know four alternatives for the word “towards” in “I walked towards Penvensy Bay...”. Students only thought of the immediate first two: *نحو* and *باتجاه*, the more neutral frequently used words. *صوب*, my third alternative, initially gained admiration among students but immediately raised a

'register' issue questioning whether the word is archaic (comes from old literature), on one hand, and spoken (used at least in one Arabic dialect, the Lebanese with slightly different pronunciation), on the other. Eventually, the introduction of the fourth alternative شطر, a Qur'anic word, gained a round of applause; the most approved alternative, since borrowing from the Qur'an would fit in all registers. This is not meant to imply that translation skill involves learning from the teacher the "correct" TL equivalent for any bit of SL, but the fact that such a class activity, in which the teacher instigates discussion and debate while declining from giving final verdicts, inspires students to evaluate solutions themselves and then generalize them for particular instances in other situations, and also put theory in context.

Moreover, what else should be advocated is training students in resource-based strategies. From the results of this study, one comes to the conclusion that in translation, what can be ranked as highly problematic, with the right resources may often become not problematic but may easily be handled. During training, students should be encouraged to use all possible resources including human resources. In the researcher case-study and, also, in the experiment conducted on subjects, human resources proved to be significantly valuable. At the same time students should be trained to develop the skill of using all available resources and turn to the right ones when they need to resort to external help to solve problems they encounter. While, sometimes, conventional dictionaries, encyclopaedias and an expert in language or in subject matter can all together give rich suggestions that help the translator to make decisions about a tricky part in the material, very often a web search can serve the purpose well. The wider implication of this crucial skill, then, is to encourage students to develop the habit of searching in their convenient time and provide them with easy access to computers at site, in class.

In order to elevate students' standards, besides training in translation process strategies and techniques including self-help and help from peers, students should also be taught tips to do things more accurately and "short-cut"⁹⁸ techniques that help in times of pressure to do things more easily and quickly.

6.3. Implications for further research

Despite the fact that this study has tackled diverse and various topics, it would not be in its capacity to adequately cover all related issues or address every single aspect. But what it can offer is some suggestions about what is worth investigating further.

Firstly, variables of background, motivation, subject matter, gender, environment, psychological factors such as pressure of time or any other form of pressure and many others, no doubt influence the quality of translation product. Further research in these areas is most needed.

Since the concern of this study was to investigate deviations from the original and trace errors in subjects' translations, unfortunately, one aspect is left out, i.e. when students performed well; another area worth investigation. On occasions while I was counting errors there were on the other side of the mirror quite a few instances of brilliant translations that charmed me and for which I thought subjects should be praised. However, it might be here in this final part of the study where I can do the participants some justice and acknowledge that quite often subjects have shown skill, expertise, wit and competence in handling some of the texts or at least parts of the text. In any case, it would be useful for the study of translation to investigate the

⁹⁸ Similar to Newmark's (1980: 137/138) "20 hints for translation exams".

circumstances in which subjects manage to perform well when translating so that results can be used for reflection in future courses.

Below, are some suggestions for further research in the area of translation problems and in using what is called the “acceptability test” to reach a verdict on long standing controversial areas such as passive, nominal verbal clauses, punctuation and Arabization among others that are worth investigating or investigating further.

- First, it would be enlightening if a further research is carried out to investigate whether translating from Arabic into English would create parallel or different problems for both Arabic and native speakers of English. While some studies in this respect do exist (e.g. Campbell, 2000 and Dickins et al, 2002) more research is still needed.
- It might be worth investigating what Nida and Taber (1969) and Masoud (1988) call personal problems (see Chapter Two). Since the focus in the present study is on material of translation but not the translator, such problems have not been investigated per se.
- It has always been emphasized that a good translator should be a good writer but there does not seem to be any empirical research done to investigate a correlation between competence in the mother tongue and skilful translation. Related to this last point, another area worth investigating is how far inadequate performance in students’ translation tasks is due, or at least partly due, to the specific phenomenon of diglossia in the case of Arab students (Rosenhouse, 1989), and how far it is a wider mother tongue literacy issue not specific to Arabic.

- Another area that is worth investigating in detail is the variability in student's use of TL grammar which results in serious errors at times and in none at other times. Similar studies to those of Ellis (1994) and Johnson (1994) in SLA are needed in translation into L1. The same can be said about the frequent recurrence of slips in students' translations. These two areas are worth investigating further, which may in turn offer solutions to reduce the incidence of such slips.
- A few incidental cultural instances in students translations and in the retrospection revealed a tendency among students to favour the "domestication" approach in translation rather than "foreignization", Venuti (1995). This phenomenon is worth further investigation.
- Finally, I recommend similar studies to be done with other language pairs to see how far this one is Arabic-specific.

In three main areas in Arabic, namely, the use of passive (frequency and agenthood), the use of nominal and verbal clauses (frequency and preference) and punctuation (frequency and distribution), despite the reasonably conducted research in these areas, the verdict on all aspects (frequency, preference and distribution) remains indecisive. I suggest further research to be done to investigate these three areas in search for what alternatives are available when translating from English into Arabic. An acceptability test like that conducted by Khalil (1993), would determine the presence or the lack of presence of precedents in the Arabic language and the tolerance or rejection of Arabic of the newly imported features in these three areas.

Moreover, I suspect that fuzzy areas of language usage like Arabization with preferences depending as much on the evaluator's age and home region as on the items themselves can never be exhausted by research. This is an area which needs constant attention, and, in my view, it is better looked at in the framework of similar trends of linguistic identity and language planning world-wide instead of isolating it as a phenomenon unique to Arabic. For example, despite the fact that borrowing vs. Arabization of lexis has been subject to extensive attention and investigation, this quickly changing area in which findings for the acceptability of an item might be outdated as soon as they are published needs more constant and sustained efforts to point out elements of controversy and set criteria for acceptability.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: 19 Texts used in the multi-subject study

Text 1

The main auditorium will accommodate 1300 delegates, but sliding dividing walls will enable the area to be divided into three, with seating for 300, 600, and 400 people. This development will provide an opportunity to build a new entrance at the rear of the Caledonian Hotel.

(Building Design)

Text 2

The recent rise in interest rates has meant that many couples are facing an uphill struggle to keep up their monthly mortgage repayments. Buyers who acquired property needing modernization, and who may have spent large sums on improvements have been particularly hard hit just when they thought their teething problems had been sorted out.

(Property Review)

Text 3

PRACTICE REALLY DOES MAKE PERFECT

Without doubt, Chris Evert has secured her place in the Tennis Hall of Fame. On court, Chris Evert is a very tough competitor indeed. Off court, however, she reveals both wit and charm. These two contrasting facets of Chris Evert - machine-like efficiency, and feminine charm and style - are also perfectly embodied in her watch. 'I know that Rolex have been making watches for a long time, and "practice makes perfect" is something I agree with.'

(Advertisement for Rolex)

Text 4

The recent use of 'psychodrama' as a therapeutic technique illustrates a further point. In these psychiatrically staged scenes patients not only act out parts with some effectiveness, but employ no script in doing so.

(Erving Goffmann: The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life)

Text 5

Noise levels at the Austerlits rail terminus, Paris, have been greatly reduced by the application of sound-absorbing tiles of synthetic rubber. The tiles are oil resistant, fire-resistant, and flexible enough to be applied on uneven concrete surfaces.

(New Scientist)

Text 6

Toxic fumes create a film over the eyes, so that *a passenger cannot see* to escape from a burning plane. Passengers are blinded before they choke on the fumes. A smoke hood-or the alternative, a filter mask-*enables passengers* to survive for longer in toxic fumes.

(New Scientist)

Text 7

We knew him vaguely. He was usually invited to our embassy parties. He was, somehow, on the permanent guest list. But he was seldom a guest. I had seen him once, but only long enough to shake his hand—a damp, slack, small-boned hand. The only other thing that I could remember was that he had been wearing evening-dress of an old-fashioned kind. He looked uncomfortable in this stiff and slightly ill-fitting suit, and it also looked forty years out of date.

(Paul Theroux: *The London Embassy*)

Text 8

Living in a small hotel on the left bank in Paris, moving between contacts in the working-class suburbs and among students in the Latin Quarter, Tito gained many left-wing international contacts.

(Phyllis Auty: *Tito: A Biography*)

Text 9

Early next morning the train arrived, to my mind miraculously, in Moscow. Not only it arrived, but it got in only about an hour late, which, someone informed me, was quite unprecedented.

(Noel Coward: *Memoirs*)

Text 10

My husband T. S. Eliot, loved to recount how late one evening he stopped a taxi. As he got in, the driver said: ‘Ah. I’ve got an eye for a celebrity. Only the other evening I picked up Bertrand Russell and I said to him: “Well, Lord Russell, what’s it all about?”—and, do you know, he couldn’t tell me.’

(Valerie Eliot, letters to *The Times*)

Text 11

(The author is stuck in a remote hotel in E. Africa.) I am not by nature a restless or volatile person, forever demanding diversion, yet I do not think I was ever so desperate in my life: no books, no radio, no argument, no pictures, no news. I have a temperament ill-adjusted to contemplation. Nobody turned up. Until, on the fourth day, somebody did.

(James Cameron: *Point of Departure*)

Text 12

If you are a student and I am your teacher, it’s up to you to let me know if my input is unclear. If you haven’t understood, tell me.

Study conditions can sometimes be difficult for you as well. If I get hold of the wrong end of the stick because I don’t know what the problem is, I can’t help you. If you tell me what’s wrong, then it’s my job to help you sort it out.

(Informal briefing to new students)

Text 13

We went to Cana of Galilee, where a little girl was offering wine jars for sale. They were the authentic ones used in the miracle. If they were too big she had a smaller size indoors; yes, the small ones were authentic too.

(Evelyn Waugh: Labels)

Text 14

In the Southeast of Botswana, lies the town of Lobatse, the country's main cattle centre. The pride of Lobatse is its abattoir, the biggest beef factory in Africa. Every day, within its gleaming and sterile interior, 1800 cattle are slaughtered and processed with conveyor-belt efficiency. The Lobatse slaughterhouse is the flagship of the government-owned Botswana Meat Corporation (BMC), and the only abattoir in the country. The cattle business is still the country's main employer and second biggest foreign currency earner. Only a fraction of Botswana's beef is used to feed its own people - more than half of whom are receiving food aid from the USA. The rest is exported. 'European chefs know all about prime Botswana meat,' boasts a full page advertisement on the cover of Air Botswana's in-flight magazine.

(The Sunday Times)

Text 15

The composer Stravinsky was asked by Balanchine, the impresario, to choreograph a polka. What Balanchine had not told him was that the music had been commissioned by a circus.

'Who exactly will be dancing this polka?' asked Stravinsky.

'Elephants,' came the reply.

'I see,' said The composer. '*How old?*'

'*Young,*' said Balanchine

'If they're very young,' said Stravinsky, '*I'll do it.*' Well, *they were*; and *he did*-hence the circus polka.

(The Listener)

Text 16

I walked towards Pevensey (Pevensey Bay being the spot where William landed his army in 1066) and decided that anyone who came ashore at Cooden Beach would find himself face to face with quintessential England-not just coastal, seaside holiday' retirement England, but secretive, rose-growing, dog-loving, window-washing, church-going, law-abiding, grumpy, library-using, tea-drinking, fussy and inflexible England.

(Paul Theroux: The Kingdom by the Sea)

Text 17

Many years ago I bought (for shilling) a two-volume, leather-bound, early eighteenth-century collection of French poetry in a junk shop. When I showed it recently to an antiquarian book dealer, he told me it was a sensational find. I knew, of course, that it was an early edition, but I hadn't realized its full significance. It seems what I had was the first edition ...

(The Antiquarian)

Text 18

Canning of fruit and vegetables: fruit lacquered cans

These special cans have a layer of golden-coloured lacquer over the inside surface, which prevents the fruit from coming into contact with the tin itself. *They may be used* for all fruits, and are ESSENTIAL for purple or red-coloured fruits, such as blackcurrants and raspberries. Before use, the lacquer *should be examined* to make sure there are no scratches on its surface. Store empty cans upside down in a dry place to prevent rusting and away from strong smells, such as soap and onions, which *may be picked up* by the lacquer and subsequently taint the fruit. Cans *should be rinsed in* clean water before use, and any dents in the rim *should be removed* if good results *are to be secured*. *After the cans have been rinsed*, they *should be inverted to drain*, but *should not be dried* with a cloth as this might scratch the lacquer.

(Marguerite Patten: 500 Recipes: Jams, Pickles, Chutneys)

Text 19

The trouble with tea is that originally it was quite a good drink. So a group of the most eminent British scientists put their heads together, and made complicated biological experiments to find a way of spoiling it ...

There are some occasions when you must not refuse a cup of tea, otherwise you are judged an exotic and barbarous bird without any hope of ever being able to take your place in civilised society.

If you are invited to an English home, at five o'clock in the morning you get a cup of tea ..

Then you have tea for breakfast; then you have tea at eleven o'clock in the morning; then after lunch; then you have tea for tea; then after supper; and again at eleven o'clock at night.

You must not refuse any additional cups of tea under the following circumstances: if it is hot; if it is cold; if you are tired; if anybody thinks that you might be tired; if you are nervous; if you are gay; you feel like it; if you do not feel like it; if you have had no tea for some time; if you have just had a cup.

(George Mikes: *How to be an Alien*)

Appendix 2: RATER GUIDE FOR ERRORS CATEGORIZATION

Grammar (Gr): Errors in Grammar include those resulting from ST influence and inconformity to TL conventions:

◀ **Misuse of grammatical morphemes concord Gr/m¹:** This includes the following sub-sub-categories:

- **Case ending:** e.g. “these two contrasting facets” ⇒ هذين المظهرين instead of هذان المظهران ² المتناقضين.
- **Subject verb concord,** e.g. “machine-like efficiency, and feminine charm and style – are also embodied in her watch” ⇒ الكفاءة instead of الكفاءة والسحر والأنثوي والأناقة أيضا يتجسدان في ساعة يدها instead of السحر والأنثوي والأناقة أيضا تتجسد في ساعة يدها.
- **Gender concord:** e.g. “the moment that” ⇒ اللحظة الذي instead of القناع instead of القناع المصفى تمكن ⇒ القناع instead of القناع المصفى يمكن.
- **Adjective concord:** e.g. “purple or red-coloured fruits” ⇒ الفواكه ذات الألوان البنفسجية والحمراء instead of الفواكه ذات الألوان البنفسجي والأحمر.
- **Numeral concord:** Gr/nc, e.g. “eleven o’clock at night” ⇒ الساعة الحادية عشرة ليلا instead of الساعة الحادية عشر ليلا.

◀ **Misuse of prepositions:** Gr/prep, e.g. “old-fashioned kind” ⇒

من الطراز القديم instead of على الطراز القديم ⇒

قبل اختناقهم بالأدخنة instead of قبل اختناقهم من الأدخنة³

¹ Codes only applied to main and sub-categories but not sub-sub categories.

² Examples come from texts not used in the inter-rater reliability tests.

³ These could also be seen as vocabulary.

◀ **Misuse of articles definite/indefinite:** Gr/art, e.g. “who may have spent large sums” ⇒ الذين ربما يكونون أنفقوا المبالغ ضخمة instead of الذين ربما يكونون أنفقوا. غير الملائمة instead of غير ملائمة “ill-fitting” ⇒ مبالغ ضخمة.

◀ **Tense:** Gr/t, e.g. “Rolex has been making watches for long time”, ⇒ كانت رولكس، ولا زالت، تصنع الساعات لوقت طويل i.e. *Rolex was making watches and still making* for long time.

◀ **Word order:** Gr/wo. One type of word order error is when the sentence in Arabic requires the form of verb + subject but the translation gives subject + verb, e.g. “the main auditorium will accommodate” ⇒ القاعة الرئيسية سوف تتسع instead of سوف تتسع القاعة الرئيسية. Errors in word order can also apply to other items within the sentence: e.g. “the trouble with tea is that originally it was a good drink ” ⇒ معضلة instead of معضلة الشاي أنه كان في الأصل يعد شراباً جيداً. الشاي أنه كان يعد في الأصل شراباً جيداً.

◀ **Passive:** e.g. “Stravinsky was asked by Balanchine” ⇒ سترافينسكي سأل بالانشين instead of سأل بالانشين سترافينسكي.

◀ **Negation,** Gr/ng. Violating TL conventions of negation, e.g. “you must not refuse any additional cups of tea” ⇒ عليك رفض أي فناجين إضافية instead of يجب عليك عدم رفض/آلا ترفض أي فناجين إضافية من الشاي لا يجب. مازالت instead of لا زالت “still” شاي.

◀ **Conditionals:** Gr/con. Excessive use of conditional clauses without variation in the conditional markers or proper use of cohesive devices, e.g. “If you are a student and I am your teacher... if my input is unclear. If you haven’t understood, tell me. ... If I get hold of the wrong end of the stick ... If you tell me what’s wrong ...

إذا كنت طالبا وأنا معلمك. . . إذا كانت المعلومات التي أزودك بها غير واضحة إذا لم تفهم قلي. إذا أمسكت بالطرف الخطأ للعصا. . . إذا أخبرتني ما هي المشكلة. . .

Instead of:

إذا كنت طالبا وأنا معلمك، فالأمر يرجع لك أن تعلمني إن كانت المعلومات التي أزوّدك بها غير واضحة، وإن لم تفهم قلى/اخبرني بذلك. فإن لمسكت بالطرف الخطأ للعصا.. وإذا أخبرتني ما هي المشكلة..

- **Verbal vs. nominal sentences: Gr/vn.** e.g. “the main auditorium will accommodate ...” ⇒ ... القاعة الرئيسية تتسع ل instead of ... القاعة الرئيسية تتسع ل

Vocabulary (V)

Errors in Vocabulary include those resulting from translation over-literally or choosing the wrong word from the wrong semantic field:

- ◀ **Homonyms/Polysemy: V/p** An example of Polysemy is when “bank” ⇒ مصرف or بنك instead of ضفة, “film” ⇒ فيلم instead of غشاوة.
- ◀ **Connotative meaning: V/c.** e.g. “argument” ⇒ مجادلة، مناقشة while in the text it means “talk”, i.e. حديث.
- ◀ **Divergence: V/d.** Choosing the wrong word from the right semantic field, as in the case of where the meaning of one word in English is divided between two related words in Arabic and the wrong one is chosen, e.g. “fire” ⇒ نار instead of “حريق”, “receive” ⇒ يتلقون instead of يستلمون.
- ◀ **Derivation** two words or more derive from the same root but have different meanings, and the wrong meaning is chosen: e.g. “modernization” ⇒ تطورات instead of تطويرات, “choke on the fumes” ⇒ يخنقوا بالدخان instead of يخنقوا بالدخان, “empty cans” ⇒ علب فارغة instead of علب فارغة.

- ◀ **Compounds:** two words joined together to give one meaning.
e.g. “the tiles are oil-resistant, fire-resistant” ⇒ رقائق مقاومة للزيت instead of رقائق مقاومة للحرائق and غير قابلة للاشتعال.
- ◀ **Fixed Expressions:** Misinterpreting of fixed formulae. e.g.
“practice does make perfect” ⇒ التدريب يصنع الجسم السليم instead of التدريب بالفعل يؤدي للكمال.
- ◀ **Phrase errors:** V/ph. translating a ST word to an incorrect the TT word while the correct equivalent is a phrase e.g. “survive” ⇒ البقاء على قيد الحياة instead of نجى. Or when a ST word would translate to an equivalent word in the TT but is translated to an incorrect adjectival phrase, e.g. “exotic” ⇒ غريب الأطوار, which means “changeable”, instead of غريب, or to a wrong verbal phrase e.g. “modernization” ⇒ تحديث instead of تواكب العصر.
- ◀ **Faulty collocations:** V/cl. When the components of the collocation do not work together, e.g. “the rear” ⇒ الواجهة الخلفية instead of خلف.
- ◀ **Technical terminology:** V/t Faulty analysis of the meaning of a new word or false etymology, e.g. “Psychodrama” ⇒ الإستطباب instead of transliteration السيكودراما or paraphrasing العلاج بواسطة. دراما المسرح
- ◀ **Proper nouns:** V/n Names of people, places, companies...etc.
e.g. “Cana of Galilee” ⇒ كانا بالجاليلي or خان الخليلى instead of قانا
“the Latin Quarter” ⇒ المربع اللاتيني instead of الحي اللاتيني and Rolex ⇒ رولكس instead of رولاكس.
- ◀ **Choice between synonyms:** V/s. “Escape” ⇒ هرب /هروب instead of أعلم instead of أعرف or فرار “I know” ⇒ أعرف instead of أعلم.

- ◀ **Choice between near-synonyms:** V/ns. E.g. “Lobatse lies” ⇒ تقع لوباتز instead of تتربع لوباتز and “his army” ⇒ حاميته instead of جيشه and “chefs” ⇒ طهاة instead of طبّاخين.
- ◀ **Word formation:** V/wf. On rhetorical grounds the preference of one derivational form of the word over another, e.g. “volatile” ⇒ متقلب instead of قلّْب, which is more emphatic, or “elephants” ⇒ أفيال instead of فيلة.
- ◀ **Arabization:** A/ar. The ST Words that have common Arabic equivalents, but which the translator keeps in their English forms or transliterates except nouns, e.g. “tennis” ⇒ تنس instead of كرة مضرب.

Addition: (Ad) Addition can appear in the form of the following:

- ◀ Addition of inappropriate or unnecessary information that might lead to style shift in a particular register, e.g. “you are T. S. Eliot” ⇒ أنت السيد ت. س. إليوت *you are Mr. T. S. Eliot*. Excluded from this category are additions which genuinely clarify “difficult” items to the reader, e.g. “you are T. S. Eliot” ⇒ أنت الشاعر ت. س. إليوت, *you are the poet T. S. Eliot*.
- ◀ Giving two explicitly-marked TT alternatives for one word in the ST either one of which is between brackets, after / or أو, “or”, etc. e.g. “auditorium” ⇒ قاعة الاجتماعات/المؤتمرات, or “toxic fumes create ” ⇒ يحدث أو يسبب الدخان السام.
- ◀ Addition of stress markers that gives prominence to an element that is not prominent in the ST “no booksno news” ⇒ لا كتب ... لا Instead of لا أخبار ... لا أخبار or لا أخبار ... لا حتى أخبار Instead of لا أخبار ... لا أخبار.
- ◀ Unnecessarily expanding the ST word into a TT phrase, e.g. “a little girl was offering wine jars for sale” ⇒ كانت هناك فتاة صغيرة تقوم

كانت هناك فتاة صغيرة تعرض جرار خمر للبيع, instead of تعرض جرار خمر للبيع
 إذا ما تبين لك the translation of “if” in “if they were too big the jars” ⇒ إذا كانت الجرار كبيرة جداً, where “if” simply translates to إذا. Excluded are phrases that enhance the TT literary texture, e.g. “he replied” ⇒ أرف قائلًا.

◀ Addition of redundant pronouns, e.g. “I know” ⇒ أنا أعرف instead of أعرف.

◆ Omission (Om)

◀ Leaving out a section or a part of a text, leaving a space for the missing part overt omission, e.g. in the translation of “purple or red-coloured fruits, such as blackcurrants and raspberries”, ⇒ الفواكه ذات اللون الأحمر والأرجواني مثل ... والتوت, where the translation of “blackcurrants” is missing. Or, simply ignoring an item or a section that is crucial to the meaning {covert omission, e.g. “Noise levels at the Austerlitz rail terminus, Paris, have been greatly reduced by the application of sound-absorbing tiles of synthetic rubber” ⇒ تخفضت معدلات الضوضاء بنسبة كبيرة وذلك باستعمال بلاط من المطاط الصناعي الحاجب للصوت. There is no mention in the translation where about the noise has been reduced.

◆ Spelling (Sp): Errors in “spelling” are those which result in breaking the TT orthographic conventions:

◀ **Invention**: the wrong use of /hamza/: e.g. “rusting” ⇒ صدأ instead of صدأ. Errors in the transliteration of names, e.g. “Rolex” ⇒ رولكس instead of رولاكس.

◀ Spelling errors that are related to morphology, e.g. “spent” ⇒ أنفقوا instead of أنفقوا.

- ◀ Errors that can be blamed on local dialect influence, e.g. “suit” ⇒ بئلة instead of بئلة, or in the case of “over-compensation”, “delegate” ⇒ مندوب instead of مندوب .
- ◀ Errors resulting from hypercorrection: e.g. “competence” ⇒ جذرة instead of جذرة, “delegate” ⇒ مندوب instead of مندوب and “modernization” ⇒ تحديث instead of تحديث.
- ◀ **Slips:** These are like in the case of letter inversion, e.g. “competitor” منافسة for منافسة, “court ” ⇒ ملعب for ملعب missing letters, e.g. “be ” ⇒ يكون for يكون substitution of similarly sounding words, e.g. “parties” ⇒ حفلات instead of حفلات. The criteria for the first examples to be included under “slips” are that such erroneous words do not exist in the language (TL); in the last example, in the context the translator can only have meant *parties* not الحفلات , which means *buses*.

Appendix 3 TASK SHEET PAGE 29: CONTEXT AND REGISTER

TASK SHEET In each of the passages below, certain words are marked off by inverted commas, for instance 'Cape Wrath doesn't mean "angry",' Mr Mathers said. Why do you think attention is drawn to these words? Is it because they have more than one meaning? Or because they are unusual in the context? Or perhaps because special emphasis is intended?

With a partner, discuss the examples in you set, and suggest translations for each expression in inverted commas. Also decide whether the inverted commas are needed in the translation.

1. 'Cape Wrath doesn't mean "angry",' Mr Matthers said. 'It's from a Norse word that means "turning-point". This is where the ships turned south.'

(Paul Theroux: *The Kingdom by the Sea*)

2. When do you open your Christmas presents?

Open them only in the privacy of your own family. Do remember to leave the receipts in 'by mistake', then everyone can change everything next week.

(*SHE* magazine)

3. An actor cannot merely imagine a given situation but can 'feel' what it would be like in such a situation. Art without feeling is dead.

(C. J. Adcock: *Fundamentals of Psychology*)

4. Well into this century it was usual for 'free' patients at the big hospitals to have their teeth extracted with no anaesthetic. They didn't pay, so why should they have an anaesthetic - that was the attitude.

(George Orwell: *Collected Essays*)

5. (From a report on the opening of new Civic Hall) When the word 'civic' was revived in the nineteenth century it got off to a bad start. Intended to inspire memories of the Roman Republic, it in fact came to mean 'pompous', 'small-minded' and 'parochial'. A building of this sort (the new Civic Hall) should help to set the word off on a new and more hopeful tack.

(*Architectural Review*)

6. In West Germany, researchers have implanted artificial bone, made from the tiny skeletons of algae, into the jaws of laboratory animals. They say that algal 'bone' behaves better than the synthetic material surgeons currently use to mend damages to bone tissue in human.

(*New Scientist*)